The Nation.

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The Week.

It appears that silver has something to do with the "hold-up" of the arbitration treaty in the Senate—how much, cannot be known at present. Why it should have any it is difficult to see, but the process seems to be something like this: Great Britain has the gold standard. It is a theory of the silverites that Great Britain is trying to force the gold standard upon us, using tremendous secret pressure through the Rothschilds and the Morgans. The arbitration treaty is popular among the gold-bugs in England and this country. Therefore it is an object of suspicion. Don't be in haste to ratify it. That some such feeling as this exists among the supporters of Bryan there is little doubt, yet it is not universal, as is shown by the action of the South Carolina and Alabama Legislatures, which voted unanimously in favor of the treaty. To all such persons we make the suggestion once more that the arbitration treaty had its beginning on this side of the water, and not on the other side. It took its first impulse in our own Congress. It is our doing. It was not enthusiastically welcomed by Lord Salisbury or by the party which he leads. There is no more connection between the treaty and the silver question than there is between it and the immigration question, probably less.

The Venezuelan boundary treaty, the text of which is now published, is in substantial accord with the reports previously published. The arbitrators are to be Lord Herschell and Sir Richard Collins on the part of Great Britain, and Chief-Justice Fuller and Justice Brewer of the United States Supreme Court on the part of Venezuela, with a fifth to be chosen by them, or, if they fail to choose one, then by the King of Sweden and Norway. They are to meet in Paris, or at such other place as they may choose, hear all arguments advanced on either side, and make a decision in writing within three months thereafter if practicable. Occupation for fifty years, either by settlement or by the exercise of political control, makes good title. All else is left to the judgment of the arbitrators. The Venezuelan Congress has still to pass upon the treaty, but there can be no doubt that it will be ratified at the coming session of that body. If they should reject it, they would never get any more Monroe Doctrine from us.

Senator Teller offered last week an amendment to the Nicaragua Canal bill providing that a new and complete survey be made under the direction of the President, and that no work be done or bonds issued until the survey is approved by him; and that if the survey shows that the cost of the work will exceed $150,000,000, nothing further shall be done without the authority of Congress. This amendment was accepted by Senator Morgan, evidently at the point of the bayonet, for the advocates of the bill a few days before declared that all such delays meant the death of the measure. Senator Aldrich in particular scouted the suggestion of Senator Sherman that the canal project be laid over temporarily, in order to find out exactly where we stand with respect to the Nicaraguan Government and to remove any obstacles found to exist there. The Teller amendment is a tardy and forced acknowledgment that the supporters of this bill were hopelessly in the wrong when they ignored the survey of the board of Government engineers, and insisted on going ahead in the face of that report, and without any survey from anybody else. The fact, alluded to in debate, that no complete survey had ever been made by anybody except that board, was as coolly ignored by the supporters of the bill as the letter of Minister Rodriguez informing them that the canal company had ceased to exist, and that it had no rights under the old contract, and that the United States Government could not acquire any rights under it even if the contract were still alive.

In his speech on the previous Monday Senator Vilas pointed out the fact that the first thing to be done under the bill is to pay the holders of the dead franchise the amount of money they have already spent in one way and another on the canal, not to exceed $4,500,000, "and the interest thereon." This payment is to be made in bonds of the company guaranteed by the Government of the United States. This sum of $4,500,000 is to be paid even if the franchise proves worthless. As Senator Vilas said:

> "Whatever becomes of all the rest of it, that section takes effect by the passage of the bill. We may never, if we should have a good board of directors, engage even in the construction of this already discredited route; we may never be able to realize the least particle of right under the concession of Nicaragua; but whatever we get or do not get, the stockholders of the Maritime Canal Company obtain $4,500,000 of bonds, and so much more as the interest on their expenditures amounts to up to the time."

They are to have also $7,000,000 of non-assessable capital stock by way of profit, but, of course, that will be worth nothing unless the canal is built, and may not be worth anything even then. The only reason, in Senator Vilas's judgment, why the United States should try to crawl into the skin of the corporation, whose concession will expire on April 27, instead of going to work in the direct way and opening negotiations with Nicaragua for a concession which shall not be liable to doubt and contention, is to have an excuse for paying this money to men who have been engaged in a bad speculation.

Senator Frye wants an item of $100,000 put in the sundry civil bill for the improvement of Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. It is not so much that he desires to have the harbor improved as to have the American Government perform "an act of sovereignty" in the islands. Under the treaty it is doubtful if we have any supreme rights in Pearl Harbor, but Mr. Frye would have the matter put beyond all question by our just going ahead and acting as if we were sovereign there. He thinks the present Hawaiian Government would not object to our appearing in Pearl Harbor in the rôle of a sovereign; but anyhow that wouldn't matter. The important thing is to "show clearly how far our jurisdiction extends." This is an elegant way of putting it, and it is a great pity that Walker, Capt. Kidd, the Dey of Algiers, and other filibusters and pirates had not learned, with the wise, to call their stealing conveying. All they ever intended was to perform with dignity like Senator Frye's "an act of sovereignty" in territory not their own, and to scuttle ships and hang men just to show clearly how far their jurisdiction extended. We have not much improved on their barbarous and lawless methods, but we infinitely surpass them in manners and in the art of using fine language to conceal or even adorn national crimes.

The controversy between the two branches of Congress over the immigration bill has ended in a victory for the House. The Senate made two radical changes in the original measure. One required that the applicant for admission must be able, not simply to read the English or some other language, but either English or the language of the country in which he has resided—a requirement which would shut out intelligent natives of one European country who had removed to another and had not acquired its language. The other change was a provision that a man able to pass the educational test might bring in a grandparent, but might not be accompanied by his wife if she were unable to read. Neither of these requirements could be defended, and there were suggestions that the President would veto the bill if they should remain features of it. The Senate has finally backed down, and an agreement has at length been reached. The original action of the Senate has provoked a very severe criticism

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from Congressman Clark of Iowa, who used to be editor of the Keokuk *Gate City* and now writes occasional letters to it from Washington. He characterized the bill as it was remade by the upper branch "a fantastic measure that ought not to become law; that shuts out a man's wife and children, and brings in his grandfather; that shuts out a German Mennonite, who stands at the head of industrious genuine Christian Protestant piety and civilization, and brings in a Cuban revolutionist half-breed, who worships a crucifix and chops off the head of a woman with a blade like a corn-cutter."

Civil-service reformers will read with great satisfaction the exposition in the *Sun's* Washington correspondence of the extent to which the spoils system has been abolished. While the pressure for office under the next Administration is greater than was ever before known, the number of places available is far smaller. Excepting the small post-offices, the *Sun's* correspondent reports that "there are not now 10,000 offices of all kinds in the United States left outside of the operation of the civil-service law." Moreover, the idea of many office-seekers that the law is a joke, and that Senators and Representatives can get around it, is all wrong. The dispatch says on this point:

> "The office seekers will find it a very serious matter. Almost every Government office in all the departments, below the grade of those the appointees to which must be nominated by the President and confirmed by the Senate, is now under the jurisdiction of the civil-service law, and can be filled only by those who are certified by the Civil-Service Commission as having made the highest record in competitive examinations open to all."

The only "ray of hope" visible is the chance that the new Administration will remove a lot of the Democrats in the higher places, promote Republican subordinates, and then fill the very lowest grades from the Republican applicants. "Under this method the new-comers must take all the menial places; but under the circumstances it looks as if they must be satisfied with these or nothing." To appreciate what all this means, one must remember that it is only fourteen years this winter since the civil-service act was passed as a harmless concession to the reformers.

All the news that we get as to the attitude of the McKinley Administration towards civil-service reform continues to be most encouraging. Republican spoilsmen have been hoping that the next President would "let down the bars," and render it easy to make vacancies which could be filled by the "right men." Probably the easiest way of doing this would be by making the examinations now required of applicants for desirable consular positions so easy that the places might be disposed of in the old way of favoritism. But a long statement from Canton as to Mr. McKinley's intentions in this matter represents that President Cleveland's order requiring examinations is considered "an excellent provision"; that Mr. McKinley "doubtless thinks that a man who cannot pass a reasonable examination upon subjects with which he will have to deal in his official capacity, is not fit to be appointed"; and—best or worst of all, according to the point of view—that "there is every reason to believe these examinations will be made pretty rigorous."

The President's order consolidating pension agencies will result in a saving of $161,000 a year. This will pain Chairman Dingley, who is certain that economy in governmental expenditure is impossible. Of course a large mind like his has nothing but scorn for a petty saving of $161,000 annually. It is millions or nothing with him, and as he sees no chance for cutting off millions at a stroke, he concludes that nothing can be cut off at all. But economies on a large scale are not the salvation of either individual or Government when embarrassed. They are, in fact, seldom possible, but small savings here and there are not only possible but highly desirable. The pension service will be not merely not crippled, but actually improved by cutting off $161,000 a year in unnecessary salaries. Two hundred thousand dollars a year saving in salaries was made in a single department of the Treasury as a result of the inquiries made by the Dockery committee. There is no doubt that similar retrenchments could be made in almost every branch of the Government service, were Congress resolutely bent on economy and ready to approach the question in a business-like spirit. A few more such economies would soon foot up a million or two a year, and so make a sum large enough for lavish Mr. Dingley to think it worth while to look at.

The problem of breaking down the civil-service law is causing the Platt statesmen at Albany a great deal of anxious thought, but a promising start toward a satisfactory solution was made last week when the Senate judiciary committee appointed as a sub-committee to draw up a bill Messrs. Lexow, Krum, and Cantor. Mr. Cantor, the third member of the sub-committee, is Croker's old agent at Albany, and has all the usual Tammany contempt for "civil service." The sub-committee is in fact a perfect illustration of the natural way in which the Platt and Tammany machines come together whenever an assault is to be made upon good government. What is delaying the plans of the anti-civil-service reformers at present is the pending decision of the courts upon the interpretation of the law given recently by Judge Keogh, which, if sustained by the Court of Appeals, will make all efforts to break down the law unavailing. He held that the constitutional amendment was self-executing, and that nothing that the Legislature might do, or fail to do, could have any effect. If the Court of Appeals shall sustain that view, which its previous decisions give the strongest reasons for believing that it will, even the great minds of Lexow, Krum, and Cantor will find the problem of upsetting the law too difficult for them. The word "competitive" is the chief foe they have to encounter, for no examination except by a board of commissioners outside the departments will meet this demand. Col. Waring gave the enemies of the law a severe blow on the very day of the sub-committee's appointment, when he asked to be relieved of the conduct of examinations for his department. They have been in the habit of pointing to his control of the examinations as proof of the superior merit of the department method. He says it is an annoyance, that it interferes with the work of the department, and that complete outside control of the examinations would be more desirable in every way. Mr. Roosevelt has made similar statements about the Police Board, so that the "Progressives" have really nothing in support of their plans save their desire to get possession of the offices for the "men they want." Gov. Black is with them, of course. A Governor who is capable of appointing Payn has put himself outside the pale of speculation as to his course in any attack upon good government. Only the Constitution and the courts stand in the way of the hungry Boys of both parties; but these form a barrier which even Lexow must respect.

Payn's nomination was "jammed through" the New York Senate in the best Platt style, but there was an unusual amount of friction developed in the process. It was an unprecedented thing to have nine Republican Senators, one-fourth of the entire number, refuse to obey orders, and, what was even more surprising, to have many of them accompany their refusal with reasons for it which confirmed all that the opponents of the boss had said about the transaction. If there had been any doubt about Payn as "a stench in the nostrils of all good and honest men" before the debate on his confirmation, there was none after it had ended. The charge had been confirmed by the adverse votes of nine Republican Senators and by the plain and courageous speeches of most of them. As for the speeches in his defence, these should be interpreted as also confirming the charge. Gov. Black's personal share in the business was revealed by several of the speakers. "I told the Governor," said Mr. Brush, "that I could not respect myself and could not face my own conscience and vote yes on this question." "I went to the Governor," said Mr. Tib-

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bits, "and told him it was impossible for me to stand by him." What must be the character of a Governor who compels members of his own party to say such things as these to him? Can there be a political future in this State for a Chief Executive who begs Senators to do him the personal favor of helping to put a notorious scoundrel in office, and who is subjected to the humiliation of having them refuse because their consciences and self-respect will not permit them to grant this request?

The meeting held last week in this city to procure the release of the Irish dynamite prisoners in England was addressed by Mr. John E. Redmond, the Irish member of Parliament, and Mr. Bourke Cockran, and doubtless its object was a good one. Mr. Redmond's speech was temperate and persuasive. He admitted he "was not there to make charges against English judges." He dwelt on the public excitement at the time of the trials, and on the fact that the men were tried under the "treason felony act," which was passed to catch John Mitchell in 1848. But as long as the Irish resort to physical force, we must expect the English to defend themselves by ferocious legislation. When we threaten people's lives, we must expect them to shoot us. There is something unmanly in the Irish complaints of the way Englishmen meet attempts to kill them or blow them up. It is undoubtedly bad policy to keep the Irish dynamiters in jail after the establishment of the new régime and the virtual abandonment of coercion; but how on earth does Mr. Bourke Cockran expect to help their deliverance by ascribing their condemnation to "British malignity," and calling the courts which condemn them, "not asylums of law, but engines of lawlessness," and by justifying the hesitation of the Senate to ratify the arbitration treaty on the ground that Great Britain is properly an object of suspicion and distrust? Englishmen are human, and bad people to threaten or bully. It is poor rhetoric to ask them to do justice because they are notorious scoundrels. We would suggest to all holders of meetings in America for the redress of Irish wrongs, to try moderation, suavity, reasonableness, and appeals to peace, good will, and civilization. The days for the more furious Irish ranting have gone by. The Irish are now strong enough for sober speech.

The Cuban reforms authorized on Thursday by royal decree appear to be somewhat more liberal than those voted by the Cortes in 1895 on the eve of the present rebellion. Ten years ago they would have been received with enthusiasm in Cuba and regarded as a complete fulfilment of the wishes of the autonomist party. Even the smaller measure of home rule offered in 1895 was accepted by all but two of the Cuban Deputies as satisfactory. But we regret to say that there is no likelihood of the present offer bringing peace to distracted Cuba. The matter has passed beyond the sphere of political agitation, and become a question of desperate and implacable war. In Spain itself the Government's offers seem to be taken as a sign of weakness, and it will be strange if the rebels do not take the same view and feel themselves correspondingly encouraged. Not long ago Cánovas was stoutly maintaining that no reforms would be granted until the rebellion was utterly stamped out. There is no pretence that the island is pacified, nor even that it can be before the rainy season sets in in June. Thus the offer of a limited autonomy necessarily has the air of something conceded in alarm or as a result of diplomatic pressure. Where the real pacification has taken place is at Washington. The bellicose Lodge, the for-one-day furious Cameron, the enraged Sherman, all are silent. We understand that a hint from McKinley has brought about this refreshing change. Pot-valiant Republicans, the President-elect has intimated, are to him just now *personæ non gratæ*. Hence the late limitation of Cuban patriotism in the Senate to Democrats like Hill and Turpie, at the end of their terms and with nothing to expect from the incoming President.

That the French press should have burst into flame at Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's speech on Egypt is only the natural result of putting a spark to tinder. It was not so much the substance as the manner of the Chancellor's remarks that played the mischief. It was well understood that England proposes now to stay in Egypt and to push on to Khartum when she gets ready; also, that she will pay the bills out of her own treasury. These facts could have been calmly stated so as to offend nobody, but Sir Michael seems to have gone out of his way to rasp French sensibilities and to give a serious shock, as John Morley instantly pointed out, to the delicate negotiations about the Turkish situation. The coöperation and good will of France and Russia in that matter are indispensable; and just after Lord Salisbury had apparently secured them, along comes his Chancellor to imperil the European concert, and to do it in an entirely unnecessary way. The performance is a curious commentary on Salisbury's own sarcastic remarks made no longer ago than the debate on the Address, about the Jingo statesmen whose patriotism gets the better of their judgment. No wonder that everybody is guessing at the possible motives of Sir Michael's outbreak. If it were only a personal question, the solution might be found in the Chancellor's having to eat his own words of last year. Then he assured the British taxpayer that the Egyptian expedition would not cost him one penny; now he has to ask for about $4,000,000 on that account. A little patriotic big talk might naturally seem a good way to make the dose go down easily. But the Chancellor is a member of the Cabinet, and unless he has been guilty of an extraordinary indiscretion, his words must be supposed to have the approval of the Prime Minister.

The Balfour myth is one of extraordinary sway in all lands but England. In Germany Herr Arendt talks mysteriously of what "my friend Mr. Balfour" is going to do for bimetallism; in France the English First Lord of the Treasury is a mighty power to sustain drooping bimetallic hopes; what awe Mr. Whitney and Senator Hoar entertain for the brainy, the brilliant, the bimetallic Balfour, we all know. In his own country, unfortunately, in the House of Commons itself, which he leads, they laugh at him. Sir William Harcourt, in the debate on the Address, had particularly good sport with Balfour. He was referring to the First Lord's amazing speech on Irish over-taxation. Said Sir William:

> "I think the First Lord of the Treasury might have done well to have imitated the reserve of the Chancellor of the Exchequer the other day; but down in Lancashire the First Lord plunged into the matter with a rashness which alarmed some of his best supporters. As far as I can understand, he thinks that indirect taxation is not of much account, and that it is a quantity that might be neglected. His words were that a man may consume or not consume, as he pleases—in a word, that if he consumes he pays, and if he does not consume he does not pay. That settles the question of indirect taxation. Then the right honorable gentleman says there is that in regard to indirect taxation which there is not in regard to direct taxation, and that there is an element of free will in the matter. Truly, a Pelagian sentiment—meaning, in a word, that direct taxation is of the nature of predestinational doctrine."

As soon as he could for the laughter, Sir William proceeded: "I cannot think that this was one of the most fortunate of the essays of the right honorable gentleman. I have known him to do better even on the subject of bimetallism." This set the House roaring again. The simple truth seems to be that Balfour took up the bimetallist dodge to humor his Manchester constituents whose trade with India was languishing, and who thought the fall in silver was the cause of it. Trade has since picked up, and the Manchester spinners have got over their bimetallic mania, but Mr. Balfour sticks to it out of sheer Scotch obstinacy. Held purely as an academic thesis, his bimetallism (he has had to confess) will never influence his official action in the slightest degree, and so it is no wonder that it has become an object of general ridicule in England. To render it completely ludicrous, it was only necessary that the senior Senator from Massachusetts should publicly make a fetish of it.

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REPORT ON THE INDIANAPOLIS CONFERENCE.

THE meeting of the Chamber of Commerce on Thursday was one of unusual importance. Mr. J. Harsen Rhoades made his report as chairman of the delegation to the Indianapolis conference, and accompanied it with a brief speech which was warmly applauded. Then Mr. William E. Dodge gave a highly interesting account of what he had learned as a member of the committee at Indianapolis which reported the platform and plan of procedure adopted there. The platform, as is well known, embraced three leading ideas—(1) the maintenance of the gold standard; (2) retirement of the Government's legal-tender notes; (3) banking reform. Upon the last-mentioned subject, which is perhaps the most difficult one to deal with, Mr. Dodge gave a sympathetic review of the facts and ideas brought to his notice by gentlemen on the committee representing Southern States that cast their votes for Bryan in the recent election. He was surprised to learn from these men that it was not Bryan or silver that they wanted or voted for, but "some change to bring relief from the terrible condition of poverty and scarcity of money under which they labored." Then he continued:

"I found that there were great sections of the Southern and Western country where there was absolutely no money at all; where the most primitive forms of barter obtained; where everything was most disorganized. One gentleman told me that in his county, which was quite a rich agricultural county, by some happy accident a fifty dollar bank bill had come down into the county, and that he had taken a horse and buggy and spent four days in visiting all the towns in the county striving to get it changed into smaller bills, but had been unable to do so, and finally was obliged to send it to Richmond. There were Senators who told me that their constituents never saw a dollar of money from the beginning of the year to the end, with the result that they had constantly to go into debt to the local storekeepers. The local storekeepers received their pay in kind. In fact, everything was drifting back to the old times before money was invented. And this was not in one section of the country only, but in large sections."

That the condition described by Mr. Dodge exists in large districts of the South is undoubtedly true. That it is the cause of the discontent which led those States to vote for Bryan and free silver is also true. That anything which cures this evil will cure those States of Bryanism and free-silverism is the belief of the very able and earnest opponents of free silver there resident. The question, therefore, of immediate concern is, how far the condition described is due to the want of banking facilities, how far this want is due to the national banking act and to the national Government in general, and how far to other causes. However much we may desire to eradicate these evils, we must first be satisfied of their origin, since otherwise any remedy that may be devised will fail to reach the disease.

Let us first dispel an illusion that we meet with in the recent testimony of Mr. Royall of Virginia before the House committee on banking and currency. Mr. Royall is a believer in the old ante-bellum system of State banks. Why does he believe in it? Because it furnished a cheap and elastic local currency. What is meant by a local currency? One which will circulate at home and nowhere else. The word home is itself rather elastic. Mr. Johnson, a member of the committee, who is under no prejudice in favor of the present bank-note system, but rather opposed to it, remarked to Mr. Royall that he could hardly reconcile himself to the idea that in order to have a reasonable amount of money in any locality it must of necessity be money which is not of uniform value throughout the country. To this Mr. Royall replied:

"We have found by bitter experience that if you put the Government's endorsement on it, we cannot retain it a moment. It is good then all over the country and everybody wants it. As long as it is backed by our credit only, it is good enough for us, but not good enough for you."

This is like saying that the kind of money wanted is a kind that will stay in a man's pocket—a kind that he cannot spend because nobody else will take it. This is a complete reversal of the ideas usually attached to money, the first requisite of which is that the next man shall be willing to take it at par for anything he has to sell. Suppose that a planter has a pocket full of the local money pictured to us by Mr. Royall. He does not want to keep it for ever. Money is only good to buy things with. He offers it to the country storekeeper for supplies. As the latter does not want to keep it for ever, he looks at it rather sharply and asks what he can do with it by way of replenishing his stock. Will the New Orleans merchant take it at par? That depends upon what the New Orleans merchant can do with it. Can he replenish his stock with it? If not, he will have none of it. Therefore it will be a local currency because nobody can get rid of it. Mr. Royall's idea is that there can be a kind of money that will circulate—that is, buy goods—at home, but will not go away from home because the issuing banks will furnish drafts on other towns and cities in exchange for it. If they will do that, and if the other towns and cities believe that they will, the money ceases to fulfil the conception of a local currency. It becomes national, or at all events excursive, by the very fact of being good.

It cannot reasonably be asked that the people of the North shall consent to a kind of money (which must necessarily be permissible in all the States) which shall be restricted to local use by reason of being more or less bad, so that other people will not take it except after a dispute or at a discount. A very little reflection must teach the Southern people that this kind of money would defeat the very object for which money exists. Money is an instrument of exchange. A very slight experience with a kind of money that "would not pass" would serve to dispel all the illusions of its devotees. There would be no objections, however, to a trial of it in any locality if it could be restricted to that locality; but under our system of government no such thing is possible.

None the less do we consider Mr. Dodge's remarks at the Chamber of Commerce meeting important and timely and stimulating. They provoke thought and discussion on the most serious problem of the hour. There is nothing more needed than an inquiry into the causes of the dearth of money and credit in the localities of which he speaks. How far is this dearth due to a lack of banking facilities? How far is this lack due to legislation, and how far to the state of society, the non-enforcement of law, lack of security, or other causes? That the national banking law, on its note-issuing side, is open to useful amendment, consistent with entire safety, is an opinion we have often expressed and which we still entertain, but we hold that safety cannot be dispensed with, and that a bank circulation which will not circulate is a phantasm even more illusory than free silver.

OFFICES AND POSITIONS.

THE question of municipal ownership of street railways, and of municipal conduct of business generally, has come up again of late in various ways and places. Boston has determined to set up a city printing-office, and "organized labor" heartily endorses the project, on the ground that it promises the printers employed "better wages for less work." Boston organized labor also pronounced, at the time of the great strike in December, in favor of the city's taking over the street railways. Similar proposals have been made in Cleveland. As for New York, the number of things our big-hearted social reformers would have the city undertake for the benefit of the employed is practically unlimited.

All these signs of the times cause great elation in a certain sect of social philosophers. According to them, municipal ownership, and the state ownership that goes with it, are coming on apace and with certainty, and they see a vast transcendental significance in the whole movement. It is the State "coming to self-consciousness." It is society knowing itself to be "organic." It is "social solidarity," "the whole existing for the individual and the individual for the whole," with many other oracular deliverances of the sort. Anyhow, the régime of individual free contract has broken down, except in the mind of a few benighted old fogies, and the beautiful and beneficent reign of a self-conscious and organic state is about to be established.

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For our part, we seem to see a simpler explanation of the phenomenon. We do not know much about the State becoming self-conscious; if it ever did such a thing in these days, we should think it would feel like going off quietly into a corner to blush over the self it had for the first time discovered. But we have no head for these deep things. We can see, however, certain very old and very human elements of greed, of laziness and selfishness, of pushing for personal advantage, which have been operative in all history, and which are quite sufficient to account for the movement to convert city and State into a bountiful employer of labor. It is a fact, proved over and over again, that the public, when employing labor, pays "the highest prevailing rate of wages for the shortest prevailing day's labor." Mr. Ethelbert Stewart has lately made public some investigations of his in Philadelphia, New York, Baltimore, and Boston, which again show the truth of this. In Baltimore, for example:

"The blacksmiths employed on public work directed by the city or State, working nine hours a day, were paid from $12 to $17 a week, while those hired by contractors or firms worked ten hours a day, and received from $9.50 to $14 a week. A similar state of things was found to obtain substantially in all other employments, while the few exceptions that appeared at first sight turned out, on a closer investigation, to be more apparent than real."

Is there not here motive enough for organized labor to favor municipal ownership? We surely do not need to call in a mystic State becoming conscious of itself; consciousness of high wages and a "soft snap" is cause sufficient. We do not in the least blame organized labor for desiring an extension to itself of these blessings of municipal and State employment. We would do the same thing were we organized labor. Such action has been directly invited by public extravagance in salaries and wages. Look at the matter in another way. Workingmen have seen the police, the firemen, the letter-carriers, organized as a compact body, given pay above the market rates, able to combine and terrify legislators into increasing their salaries and their privileges from time to time. Why should they not covet similar favors for themselves? Why should they not desire to see street-car conductors and drivers and gas-meter men and pavers and rammers and scavengers in like manner given special pay and special privileges by the city? The thing is perfectly natural. It takes no profound conception of the State, expressed in big German words, to make us understand why these things should be. The good old democratic principle of "I'm as good as you be" goes far towards explaining the mystery.

Nor is it all a question of higher wages for less work. The great distinction between an office and a position comes in here. A position is an opportunity to work, to do something; an office is an opportunity to get something. To hold a position, you have to know your business. You have to be faithful, industrious, efficient. To hold an office, you have only to "get there," and then you may be as indolent and inefficient as you please. Out of a position you may be turned instanter for negligence or ill conduct. From the typical office you can be removed only on formal charges, after a long trial, with ample opportunity for appeal, for mandamuses and writs of certiorari, for veteran-preference and triumphant reinstatement. A corporation has an unpleasant way of watching your work and testing your efficiency; a city pays you more than you are worth, and asks no questions. Therefore away with oppressive private ownership, and hurrah for municipal ownership! Let printing, and blacksmithing, and street-car driving, and all the rest be made offices instead of positions, and the millennium will be upon us.

This, we admit, is a very unheroic explanation of the movement for municipal ownership. It is much grander to talk social metaphysics on the subject, but the facts are as we say. It is no theory of the State that chokes our cities with needy people from the country, or that sets organized labor clamoring for city employment; it is just a plain American eye for the main chance. The idea has got abroad that the city is a generous old grandmother with lots of money to squander. The thriftless ne'er-do-weels simply want to be on hand for their share. It is preposterous, people say, to suppose that the city and State can employ everybody at high wages; who will foot the bills? But it is no more preposterous than that city and State should employ anybody to do work for which he is not fitted, and pay inefficiency more than the market rate for efficiency. Public extravagance and favoritism, increasing lavish expenditures, and multiplication of offices in city, State, and nation—these are the great provokers of Socialism. Anybody who wants to fight Socialism effectively had better begin by fighting them.

THE CHARTER EXPLANATION.

The Charter Commissioners have been induced, after many weeks of urging, to say something in reply to the shower of objections to their work which has been pouring in on them ever since the publication of their report. Gen. Tracy gave to a reporter for the *Evening Post* on Wednesday week something in the nature of a defence of the scheme. It seems that he is the member who is "irrevocably wedded" to the "new assembly" feature of the charter, on the ground that the "present municipal legislature is absolutely powerless"; that the people who live under it are also "powerless"; that the people have no control of their affairs between elections, and are "voiceless" and mere spectators, while their money is being voted, and that the Government is, therefore, an "autocratic, bureaucratic Government." What strikes one as extraordinary about this is, that not a single reason is presented in favor of the "new assembly," except that Gen. Tracy wishes it, and thinks it would be a good thing. He ignores the fact that the city tried such a legislature as he proposes, for over half a century, and that as the city grew in wealth and its population became more heterogeneous, the legislature became a nuisance; its powers were gradually restricted, and it was finally abolished. It was abolished, that is, as the result of experience of its working, because it was corrupt and incompetent, and because the people were voiceless while it was voting away their money. And here we must quote an astonishing passage in Gen. Tracy's statement:

"If, after experiment, it should be found that those who think with me are mistaken, and that the people are not yet sufficiently educated to be trusted in any measure with the conduct of their municipal business, the powers bestowed by the new charter can be withdrawn by the State Legislature, as when ten years ago the Common Council was reduced to its present impotency."

So that the promised "home rule" consists simply in permission to run a career of folly and extravagance until the Legislature once more thinks it advisable to withdraw the charter or alter it. It is probably too favorable a supposition to say the Legislature would withdraw it only after some years of folly. As a matter of fact, it would probably withdraw it when directed to do so by the boss for the time being, without any open reason at all. The measure would be "jammed through," and the malcontents be invited to "shut up."

President Low followed Gen. Tracy's example and explained his action about the Greater New York charter the next day, and Mr. Dillon submitted another explanation on Friday afternoon. Mr. Dillon's statement does not call for much comment. He says that "European experience" justifies the size of the Assembly; that in the "little town of Carlsbad," for instance, they have thirty-six municipal councillors; that as the States have two legislative bodies, New York ought to have two; that two houses will prevent precipitate action; that "a higher grade of men in point of intelligence and character" will find their way into the upper house than into the lower; that the Commission "carefully considered" the size of the districts; that the municipal Assembly will have limited and guarded powers; that it has neither too much power nor too little, but just enough; that the bi-partisan Police Board is a good thing; that to provide for separating the Election from the Police Department is "a theoretic and doctrinaire suggestion." It will be seen that all this is simply Mr. Dillon's assertions and prophecies. There is not the smallest reference to American experience or to the experience of New York. It surprises one in reading it that Mr. Dillon should have

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attempted drafting a charter with so little apparent preparation for the work in the shape of reading, or acquaintance with our peculiar conditions. A complete refutation of all this, except the prophecies, may be found in President Low's chapter on municipal government in Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.' The prophecies of these gentlemen we can treat only with respectful silence. There is no way, that we know, of getting the better of a prophet except one, and that is to disbelieve him.

In Mr. Low's statement we find that, in the Commission, he advocated a single legislative chamber, a one-headed Police Department, and a separate Board of Elections. He says:

"It is well known that I favor these things, and it ought to have been taken for granted that I have urged them upon the Commission. Except for Gen. Tracy's interview, I should have remained silent until the Commission had reported to the Legislature. I have urged the single chamber, among other reasons, because I think it lends itself to efficiency, and, in the work of a city, efficiency is a very important factor."

But his action could not have been known, seeing that he signed the report recommending these very things of which he disapproved. His proper course was either to enter his protest against them in the report, or else to make a minority report, setting forth his objections and using the arguments against them he has used already in Bryce's book and in the *Century Magazine*. His failure to do so was very unusual, and excited the surprise of the public. It was the more unfortunate because we believe the instruction of the public to be the very highest duty of men in Mr. Low's position, particularly in our present condition. He owed it to the people of this city to discuss publicly and freely the proposed charter, in anything he printed on the subject, and especially in the report. It was due to them to reiterate there his objections to the proposed scheme; and the more unwilling its promoters were to talk about it, the more private the meetings of the Commission, the greater the haste in getting it before the Legislature, the greater the reluctance to submit it to the popular vote, the more outspoken should he have been. Nothing is more lamentable at this crisis than the silence imposed on our public men by the bosses. Not only has Mr. Low failed to promulgate his own views, but he has left the public to suppose he no longer held them.

He now proposes to support the charter because "it is not settled for all time if it works badly." This disposes of the "home-rule" pretension. If, we repeat, the charter can be supervised, altered, or abolished by the Legislature for working badly, the Assembly will not exercise "home rule"; it will simply enjoy delegated rule. What the authors of this charter mean by "home rule" is simply large powers which need not last one minute longer than the majority in the Legislature, or Mr. Platt, pleases. President Low now says that it makes no difference whether a city has one or two branches in its legislature; that "the form of a city legislature is a matter of comparative unimportance as long as its membership shall be nominated by party machinery as at present." But he showed clearly in Bryce's book that "American experience" proved that all city legislatures were bad, in that they were founded on a radical mistake as to the nature of the city. What he now says of the comparative unimportance of their form as long as the nominating machinery is what it is, is an admission that the party machinery is the cause of their badness. Is it not, therefore, extraordinary that by way of cure he should join in creating a city legislature of his own worst variety, knowing it would be filled by this same party machinery?

He says, secondly, that the defects, which he acknowledges in the charter, "are trifling compared with the fundamental advantages of consolidation." But to give this remark any force he should show that the charter with a municipal assembly is necessary to consolidation, which nobody pretends. Consolidation could take place without this charter and without an assembly. The new city could be governed in the same way as the old one, in the opinion of thousands of prophets. Besides, the defects in the charter are fundamental as well as the advantages. If they strengthen the machine by the creation of a swarm of new salaried, elective offices, they are fatal, according to Mr. Low himself. This type, he says, has been largely abandoned in the United States, "because city government has not shown itself worthy to be trusted with powers so extensive."

His last argument is simple prophecy—that he "believes" this will be a better charter than any now existing; but why it should be better he does not state. If he could show that in some American city the government had been improved by the creation, under boss nominations, of a large municipal legislature, it would go far to prove his case. But he cannot cite anything of the sort. Everything we know of American municipal history in this country goes to show that the more salaried elective officers there are, and the more responsibility is divided, the worse the cities are off. We could cite from experience a hundred reasons for thinking he is wrong; for thinking he is right there is no reason except his own hopeful anticipations and those of Messrs. Tracy and Dillon. There is no example in American history of an enlargement of powers having improved a legislative body. The whole trend of American politics for fifty years is towards a restriction of legislative powers. If the notion were true that giving this municipal Assembly rule over a larger area was sure to improve its quality, the Legislature at Albany would be a model body, for it rules both the city and State. But is it?

COÖPERATIVE HISTORY.

Of making histories on the coöperative plan, there is, apparently, no end. The latest project is the "Cambridge Modern History," which Lord Acton is to edit, and to which nearly every prominent historical scholar in England is to contribute. The period to be covered extends from the close of the Middle Ages to the present time. To "expose the annals of nations" "at their point of junction with the central stream, when they cease to be inert, and carry tribute to the common fortune of mankind"; to treat events "in the natural order of cause and effect, not in the merely outward order of place and time"; to show the achievements of the nineteenth century "since the opening of archives has quickened the pace, and history has risen to be a sovereign and progressive science, serving no cause but its own"; to exhibit, "in their origin and progress and substance," the dominant forces of the present day, and illustrate them by illumination of the past—such are the ambitious aims of this new venture. The fact that the editor is a scholar of great attainments and catholic temper, and his collaborators the most distinguished body of men ever enlisted for such a service, is enough to secure for the undertaking more than ordinary consideration.

It must be admitted, however, that the inherent difficulties of such a task, in the present condition of historical study, are very considerable. If we read the somewhat turgid prospectus aright, Lord Acton and his associates are not without hope of doing for the history of the past four or five hundred years a work similar in kind, only far more perfect in detail, to that associated with the names of a long line of writers, from Herodotus onward, who have "taken the history of civilization for their topic and the known world for their domain." "Historic thought," we are told, "will have a place proportioned to historic action, and the march of European intellect will be traced as it came successively under the dominant influence of religious, philosophical, political, and scientific ideas." The later volumes "will endeavor . . . to exhibit the cause, and the growth, and the power of the ruling currents that still govern and divide the world, and to provide chart and compass for the age to come." The idea is fascinating, but it would be easier of realization if our knowledge of history were wider and more exact, and human judgments less diversified. To begin with, it is easy to overestimate very seriously the amount of assured historical knowledge which the industry of scholars during the present century has made available. We have had, it is true, edited documents by the thousand, monographs by the hundred, and memoirs, diaries, and letters to repletion. The publications of historical societies and the files of historical journals would, of themselves, make a large library. Yet no historical student works long in this mass of material without finding how many and important are the subjects yet unexplored. This is conspicuously true in the period which Lord Acton's history proposes to cover. We have had as yet, for example, no exhaustive critical examination of the century preceding the outbreak of the Lutheran Reformation, or of the seventy years prior to the French Revolution. Of many aspects of the

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present century we know less, proportionately, than we do of several centuries before the year 1000. In economic history we have made little more than a beginning; and the same is true of the history of government and law. Until these gaps are filled, it may be doubted whether we are in position to form comprehensive judgments, or to treat of the history of modern civilization with greater success than did those earlier writers who, with less available material, came near to knowing it all. It is with historical as with physical science: the activity of research has raised nearly as many questions as it has answered.

Then there is the question of the point of view. Lord Acton evidently regards history as something more than annals or chronicle, and the interpretation of events as of at least equal importance with their correct narration. Interpretation, however, means, of course, a personal judgment, a rational and consistent theory of things; and even were facts far more numerous than they are, it is clear that the work of an editor at this point is bound to be one of difficulty and delicacy, involving nothing less than the success or failure of his entire scheme. The proper standpoint—whether Catholic or Protestant, democratic or monarchical, economic or political, legal or constitutional—from which to judge of five centuries of human progress is a matter on which there is not, as yet, any approach to unanimity among historians themselves; indeed, so diverse are the views, and so great has been the revolt against mischievous theories and assumptions, that there are not wanting at the present day eminent scholars who find their ideal of historical

riting in the work of the mediæval chronicler, who set down in order what he heard or saw, and left the rest to God. The "Cambridge Modern History" is to begin with the close of the Middle Ages. Now it is not too much to say that upon the view taken of the Middle Ages, more than of any other period, depends, in considerable measure, the interpretation of the succeeding centuries—whether the attempt shall still be made to mark off sharply "mediæval" from "modern" times, or whether, as scholars are more and more coming to think, the theory of the "continuity" of history finds in this particular period especial illustration. Lord Acton's prospectus seems to imply the acceptance of this latter view, and the weight of his authority will be very great; but the question, after all, is one of interpretation as well as of fact. Clearly we have to reckon here with one of the secrets of great historical writing —the sane and convincing judgment of the historian himself as to the significance of his facts.

Lastly, there is the requirement of unity in conception and presentation—that one thing needful which no historical work on the co-operative plan has yet attained. To secure the assistance of eminent specialists is always possible, but to mould their work into an organic whole is quite another matter. Winsor's 'Narrative and Critical History of America,' unquestionably the greatest product of American historical scholarship, is not, in any proper sense, a history at all, but a collection of monographs. Traill's 'Social England' is repetitious, contradictory, and marvellously uneven. The 'Histoire Générale' of Lavisse and Rambaud gives disproportionate space to France, and is weak, at least in its earlier volumes, on ecclesiastical topics. A perusal of the long list of scholars whom Lord Acton has called to his aid shows many fundamental divergences of view. Mr. Lecky, for example, can speak with authority regarding Ireland, and Mr. John Morley regarding France, but we fancy that even Lord Acton would find it difficult to reconcile their estimates of democracy, while in religious matters neither of them would be likely to agree with Mr. Frederic Harrison, as the latter would certainly differ from Mr. R. H. Hutton, Principal Fairbairn, or the Bishop of London. Experience has abundantly shown that no historical work, whatever the circumstances of its composition, can win large success unless it is, in reality, the product of a single mind. Some such result as this Lord Acton evidently hopes to attain: if he succeeds, the "Cambridge Modern History" will be, in the fullest sense of the term, an epoch-making work.

THE FRENCH IN NORTH AFRICA.

TUNIS, November, 1896.

IN the first of these letters from North Africa it was remarked that in ancient times the southern shores of the Mediterranean belonged equally with the northern shores to the world of civilization. Their barbarism dates only from the Mohammedan conquests of the seventh and eighth centuries. Before that time there had been a Carthaginian civilization in what is now Tunis and along the coasts of Eastern Algeria, a Greek civilization to the eastward of Tripoli, and ultimately a Roman civilization all the way from the frontiers of Egypt to the Straits of Gibraltar. The Mediterranean was the centre of the ancient world, and all the peoples that lay round it formed for six centuries after Julius Caesar one political and commercial whole, and for two centuries at least one ecclesiastical whole also. In the dissolution of the Roman Empire the African provinces, though not the first group of provinces to be torn away, were the group that was torn away most completely. Efforts were made by Christian Powers long afterwards to recover parts of them. The Norman King of Sicily conquered one part, the Emperor Charles V. conquered another. But these acquisitions were soon lost, and the process of recovering Africa from Mussulman barbarism was not seriously undertaken till our own time, when the European States had made such prodigious advances over the Mussulman states in science and in organization that their victory was prompt and easy.

The process began with the French expedition to Algiers in 1829. The Moorish tribes, and especially the warlike Kabyles, gave the French a good deal of trouble, just as the Kafirs gave the English at the same time a good deal of trouble at the other end of the African Continent. But this was merely because the European troops were few and the country difficult. There never was any more doubt that the French would prevail than there was that the English would reduce the Kafirs. The French are still unpopular with most of the natives of Algeria, and those who know the country declare that if France were again involved in a disaster like that of 1870, she would again, as in 1871, find a revolt break out among the tribes. Though Algeria is now incorporated with France, and returns members to the French Legislature, the number of French colonists established there is relatively small, and the mass of the native population has remained but little affected by French habits and ideas. Still the country is won for civilization, and is in no risk of being lost as it was when the Vandals and the Arabs conquered it.

The second move towards the recovery of Africa was the French occupation of Tunis in 1881. The third was the British occupation of Egypt in 1882. Egypt has always had a history of its own, and need not be discussed here. But the case of Tunis is interesting. The French have not formally annexed it, still less have they incorporated it, like Algeria, with European France. They govern in the name of the Bey, who is still treated as a sovereign, and is even permitted to administer Mussulman justice between Mussulmans. The old treaties between Tunis and several European Powers, therefore, remained in force, and it has been one of the chief aims of the French to replace them by new treaties, more favorable to French commerce, or at least more hostile to the commerce of other countries. This they have lately accomplished as regards Italy. They are now anxious to achieve it as regards England, and are thought likely to succeed. For Lord Salisbury is supposed to be willing to put France in good humor by concessions, even though these concessions should injure the thriving trade which England now drives with the Tunisian ports in cotton goods. The revenues of the Tunisian dominions—the Regency (as it is called) of Tunis — are still nominally the Bey's revenues. They are, therefore, applied locally. Nothing goes to France, and no French money is spent in Tunis; the cost of the French officials and the French army of occupation being defrayed by these local funds. One result of this has been that Tunis has been made to pay for the fortification of the harbor of Bizerta, now one of the strongest places, as well as one of the most spacious land-locked havens, in the whole Mediterranean. The creation of this naval stronghold is, of course, in the interests of France, and of France only, not in any way of the Bey or his subjects. But the revenues of the Regency have paid for the building of the moles and forts which France garrisons and purposes to make a second Toulon.

The fifteen years of French occupation have been years of almost unbroken peace, very unlike the first fifteen years of the conquest of Algeria, for the population of the Regency is easy-going and unwarlike. Even in the sacred city of Kerwan, the supposed hotbed of Mohammedan fanaticism, scarcely any resistance was offered to the invaders in 1881. The country seems now perfectly quiet. One does not hear of brigandage nor of any resistance to French authority. So far, therefore, it may seem that the French have an easy task before them, and that the civilization or Europeanization of the country may proceed rapidly. No careful observer will, however, feel sure that this will be the case, when he reflects both on the character of the population and on the aptitudes, or inaptitudes, of the French for colonization. Though naturally very rich, as their condition under Carthage and Rome proves, the territories of the Regency are very thinly peopled. That the population has increased within the last sixty years is shown by the fact that wild beasts, such as lions and hyenas, formerly not uncommon in the mountains even within forty miles of Tunis, have now become extremely rare. But the people are still few, having regard to the area and its fertility, and in the rural parts they are extremely unprogressive. Large regions of the interior are left to semi-nomad tribes, apparently rather Arab than Berber in their blood, who live in tents or in wretched huts,

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and scratch the soil now in one place, now in another. They are very backward, and have so few wants as to have little notion of trying to better their condition. Yet it is on them that any one wishing to develop the agricultural resources of the interior must rely for labor.

The Mohammedans of the maritime towns are more civilized, but slack and listless. Of late years there has been a considerable immigration of Italians, chiefly from Sicily, and also of Maltese. The Sicilians are hard workers, and are employed not only in making roads and railways, but in building and here and there in the more skilled forms of agricultural labor. The Maltese, who are not less industrious and much quieter and more orderly than the Sicilians, conduct a good deal of the minor commerce and of the handicrafts. But neither race colonizes the soil or shows any sign of building up a domesticated peasantry. Still less do the French. France has no superfluous rural population; and though the life of her rural folk is hard and pinched, they are too much wedded to the spot of their birth and the habits of their forefathers to think of migrating to a country where they might easily better their condition. A few Frenchmen have bought and are working farms, but they work them entirely by native labor, with perhaps a Sicilian or two added. When a Frenchman comes, he comes, not to make a home, but to gather a little money and then return to France; he does not think of identifying himself with the country. Thus the native population remains unaffected by Europeans, except in the few towns, and even in the towns the distinction of religion raises an impassable barrier between the European and the Moslem. Not only is there no intermarriage, but there is no approximation in habits and ideas.

What the French have so far done is to make a number of roads (previously the so-called roads were mere tracks across the land), to construct several railways (a very great service to the country), to improve the ports of Tunis, Bizerta, and Susa, and to build at Tunis a new French town outside the ancient Moorish city. A stimulus has thus been given to trade, and the way paved for the development of the country, if either its own sluggish population could be stirred up or a new population induced to enter. That population, if ever it comes, will not come from France, and one is disposed to wish that the aspirations of Italy had been realized, and that Tunis had fallen to her instead of to her more powerful rival. Italy need not have drained her own too scanty resources, as she has done for her miserable colony of "Eritrea" on the Red Sea coast, for Tunis is able to pay its own way. She would have had no such formidable enemies as the Abyssinians have proved, and she might have repeopled the Tunisian territory with the overflow of her own peasantry, instead of seeing them drained off to New York and Buenos Ayres.

Of this there is now no chance. So far from having any idea of resigning Tunis, France regards it as a valuable point of vantage from which to obtain, when the Turkish Empire falls to pieces, the dominion of Tripoli. She is, moreover, anxious to get the trade of the Sahara into her hands. At present this trade, which crosses the Desert in caravans from the negro states north and northeast of Lake Tchad, goes by way of Murzuk or Ghadames to the port of Tripoli. The French desire to bring it to Sfax, or Gabes, or one of the other South Tunisian ports, and have thrown out posts into the Desert in the hope of effecting this. Their ambition is to control the whole of North Central Africa from the upper Nile to the Atlantic, and thereby to control also the negro kingdoms which lie south of the Sahara, between it and the territories under French influence in the northern basin of the Congo. These are far-reaching schemes, and witness to that strange passion for expansion which has laid hold of the European nations, which has induced the Germans to spend large sums on their unhealthy and unprofitable colonies in East Africa and Southwest Africa, and has made the English occupy the almost equally unprofitable regions round the great Nyanza lake—Uganda, Kavirondo, and Unyoro. One African country remains unappropriated, for which there will some day be a great struggle, because it has an almost temperate climate, a rich soil, an admirable situation. This is Morocco. France has long had her eye on it, and would gladly appropriate it, but for the apprehended resistance of Spain and England. It would be a valuable possession to England, but England knows that France and Spain would stand in her way. Thus, while all the rest of Africa, most of it worthless, has been parcelled out among three or four European Powers, the part nearest to Europe and most attractive in itself is reserved for barbarism and misgovernment of the worst kind by the jealousies of three nations.

Sooner or later, however, Morocco, like the rest of North Africa, will be brought within the widening circle of European civilization. The more interesting question which remains doubtful is whether in any of these North African countries civilization and Christianity will lay hold of the mass of the population, either by a social change worked upon the existing inhabitants from above, or as the result of an infiltration of European immigrants. So far as Algeria and Tunis are concerned, this process has not yet begun. French influence has not effected, and shows little sign of effecting, for the people what Punic influence, and afterwards Roman influence, did for the aboriginal Berbers twenty-five centuries ago. The difference between the stages of culture at which the conquerors and the conquered stand is too great, and Mohammedanism resists foreign influences to an extraordinary degree. A Mussulman population sometimes vanishes silently from a country. It has vanished from Rumania and Servia, and is fast vanishing from Bosnia and Bulgaria. But there seems to be no instance in which it has abjured Islam, and thereby opened itself to receive the impress of modern Europe. Be this as it may, the fortunes of Africa are now, for as far as we can see into the future, linked indissolubly with those of the great European states; and the complexity of the ties is shown by such a fact as the influence which a remote Power like Russia has been trying to exert upon the Abyssinian kingdom.

C. E.

Correspondence.

TEN BRINK'S TRANSLATOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps we may be excused for imposing upon you and your readers a "plea in extenuation" of our responsibility for the translation of the third volume of Ten Brink's 'English Literature,' criticised in your issue of to-day. We selected the translator for only the first volume. Professor Kennedy's lamented death led to the translation of the others being arranged for in Europe independently of us; only the third, however, was intrusted to the translator whose work you criticise unfavorably. We printed it from the English plates without taking proofs.

The hasty consideration which we have been able to give to your reviewer's criticisms suggests that good judges might differ regarding some of them. We do not wish, however, to take the time to get the translator's defence from England before letting your readers know the limits of our responsibility.

Respectfully yours,

Henry Holt & Co.

29 West Twenty-third Street,
New York, February 4, 1897.

FOR THE-NONCE, "*PURPOSELY*" AND THE LIKE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Hardly was it to be expected that, as results from substantiating the definition which heads this letter, the information regarding *for the nonce* supplied by English dictionaries of recent days could be shown to be deficient. Among the several senses of the phrase about to be considered, let that first be taken which is strictly antithetic to *accidentally, casually, fortuitously.*

To determine how early this sense of it appeared demands, no doubt, farther research. At present it is ascertained that, as exemplified below, the phrase, modifying a finite verb, and meaning "purposely," had some vogue just before the accession of Henry the Eighth:

"Some other beggers, falsely, *for the nonys*
Disfygure theyr children. god wot unhappely.
Manglynge theyr facys, and brekynge theyr bonys,
To stere the people to pety that passe by."
—Rev. Alexander Barclay, *Shyp of Folys* (1508), vol. i., p. 304 (ed. 1874).

A little later, in his *Cronycle compyled in Latin*, a translation of Sallust's *Jugurtha*, Barclay twice renders *consulto* by *for the nonest, for the nones*, namely, in fol. 51*v* and 71*v*. The first edition of the *Cronycle*, undated, is here referred to.

The subjoined quotation is likewise in point:

"My reasons and authorities of purpose are commonly taken out of their own doctors and writers, and such books as are not counted protestants, nor made by any of this new learning. *For the nonest* I forbare to allege the learneder sort, lest the unlearned should say they could no skill on such books, nor knew not whether they were truly brought in." Bp. James Pilkington (1563), *Works* (1842), p. 643.

Again, Richard Bernard, translating Terence in 1598, Englishes his *de industriâ* and *deditâ operâ*, in the *Andria* and in the *Eunuchus*, respectively, by *for the nones.*

Illustrations of *for the nonce*, employed, by distinct implication, to the same effect as above, but with specification (in the subsequent context) of what is purposed, are the following:

"A cook thei hadde with hem *for the nones*
To boyle chyknes and the mary bones;
And poudre marchant, tart, and galyngale."
—Chaucer, *Canterbury Tales, Prologue* (about 1390.)

"Thai war assemblit *for the nanis*
The gret gammis Circenses for to se."
—Bp. Gavin Douglas (1513), *Works* (1874), vol. iii., p. 196.

"The bischoppis all, and mony abbot, also,
Into the tyme, with vther lordis mo,
Convenit all togidder *for the nanis*
Of Sanct Margaret for to translait the banis."
—William Stewart. *The Buik of the Croniclis of Scotland* (1535), vol. iii., p. 105, st. 45, 930 (1858).

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"Mee thinke, also, I haue read that Iulius Cæsar ware *for the nonce* a garland of Laurell, to hide his baldnesse withall." Sir Thomas Hoby, *The Covrtyer of Covnt Baldessar Castilio* [Baldassare Castiglione] (1556), sig. K ii. *r.* (ed. 1577).

In the first quotation, pointed otherwise, *for the nones* is clearly taken, by Dr. Richardson, in his *Dictionary*, to denote "for that purpose," "for the purpose aforesaid," and not as construable with *To boyle*.

Differently, in an author noticeably more modern than those who have just been cited, the expression is emphasized, with *for* and a substantive annexed:

"*Cordial* Medicines are made *for the very nonce for the sick* (as the Sacrament, for sinners)." Rev. Edmund Hickeringill (about 1682), *Works* (ed. 1716), vol. ii., p. 122.

Curiously enough, *for the nonce*, to signify "purposely," "intentionally," is still current, but only among illiterate persons of advanced age, here in Suffolk; as in, "He jossed up again me *for the nonce:* 't wan't a accident." Professor Joseph Wright, editor of the admirable *English Dialect Dictionary* now in course of publication, obligingly informs me that he has not traced this peculiarity, in living speech, to any part of Great Britain.

In old authors, it is moreover to be observed, *for the nonce* is often introduced with perplexing vagueness; seeing that, in various connexions, it is ostensibly convertible with *studiously*, with *voluntarily*, *deliberately*, *advisedly*, and even with *for a time*, and with *then*, *afterwards*. In many instances, also, it looks as if it were simply syllabic padding, to integrate a verse; it being, so far forth, comparable with *bedene*, *iwis*, *mid iwis*, which, in distant days, were, not seldom, merely chiming expletives. In support of most of these conclusions, the evidence now to be offered might be multiplied tenfold from materials before me:

"Weyl were hyt do rygt *for the nones*
To wurschyp swych cherlës bones.
What wurschyp shulde men make
About swych cherlës bodyes blake?"
—Robert Mannyng, *Handlyng Synne* (about 1303), p. 269, v. 8691 (1862).

"And eftyr, quhen thai [Romulus and Remus] worth men, thai becam, *for the nanys*, briggantis of the wod." Bp. Douglas (*ut supra*), vol. ii., p. 291.

"Than the knightes couched their speares, and ran at thē with all their force; and the flemynges opened and gaue them way, it was sayd *for the nones*, and fledde, and sayde amonge themselfe, let vs flye and gyue them way, for we are sure the bridge wyll nat beare thē." Lord Berners, *The Cronycle of Froissart* (1523), vol. i., p. 717 (ed. 1812).

"A peyne y suffre harde, *for the nones*,
For a clothe that y refte ones
Of a pouerre man wythoute rygt."
—Robert Mannyng (*ut ante*), p. 73, v. 2263.

"Syne kingis com, amangis quham *for the nanis*
Stern Tibris regnit, a man byg of banis."
—Bp. Douglas (*ut supra*), vol. iii., p. 174.

"Sammyn wyth this vprisis *for the nanis*
Ane huge nois and clamour all atanis."
—*Ibid.*, vol. iv., p. 113.

"Blessed shall he be that *for the nones*
Shall throwe thy chyldren agaynst the stones,
To brynge the out of memorie."
—Bp. Myles Coverdale (before 1539), *Remains* (1846), p. 572.

"To saif Mankynde, that was forlorne,
Christ bure ane creuell crowne of thorne;
The Pope, thre crownis, *for the nonis*,
Off gold, poulderit with pretious stonis."
—Sir David Lindesay (1552), *Poems* (ed. 1865-'71), p. 148.

In the oldest quotation of this group, a Norfolk knight, whose cattle have befouled the graves in a churchyard, replies, ironically and irreverently, to a bondman who complains to him of their misdoing.

Only the first three of the immediately preceding quotations, with those produced higher up, am I now able to bring forward from literature, to vouch, unchallengeably, for "purposely," and words either virtually, practically, or approximately, synonymous with it, as senses which have been borne by *for the nonce*. Nevertheless, the paucity of those testimonies is owing, without doubt, to my having neglected to make memorandums of others, when they were observed. With respect to the leading sense adverted to, though a good number of lexicographers pretty certainly went on recording it after it had ceased to define the phrase in any but an archaic acceptation, or in one no longer standard, it must have been, for a considerable period, prevalent, and have continued to be familiar to the learned. This position is established without difficulty.

Deditâ operâ, *de industriâ*, *consulto*, *tout exprès*, *à dessein*, and the like, are the interpretations of *for the nonce* given in more than a dozen old dictionaries—even down to Ainsworth's in the edition of 1828—that have been examined, not one of which, strange to say, recognizes it as interchangeable with "for the occasion," "ad hoc," the usual signification attaching to it all along, uninterruptedly, and attaching to it as an item of popular diction, though Dr. Johnson, in his haste, constructively pronounced it to be "not now in use." Thus, Bp. Thomas Cooper, of the era of Queen Elizabeth, has: "De industriâ aliquid facere. Cic. To doe of purpose or *for the nonce*," and "Deditâ operâ. Cic. Purposely, *for the nones*, of set purpose." Rider, Florio, Minsheu, Francis Holyoke, Miége, Littleton, and William Robertson, with others, might be adduced to the same purport. Skinner, in his *Etymologicon*, makes *for the nonce* equivalent to "serio et de industriâ," and then, going off at score, indulges in the fantastic and nebulous exposition: "Dicimus enim *To do a thing for the nonce*, cùm compendio rem peragere conamus, et caput rei petimus." In passing, Howell's Italian for the locution, *industriosamente*, "laboriously," or "craftily," does not suit with his French for it, *expressement*.

Ruddiman, in the glossary prefixed to his edition of Bp. Douglas's *Æneis*, has: "For the nanis; *for the nonce*, for the purpose, on purpose." Hearne, glossing, in 1725, Robert Mannyng's *for the nones*, *for the nons*, equates it to "de industriâ, operâ deditâ," and to "designedly, on purpose." Jamieson, in his *Etymological Dictionary of the Scottish Language*, adds nothing, touching *for the nanis*, to what may be gathered from his predecessors.

In a discussion wider of scope than this, notice would have to be taken of *with the nones that*, found at least twice in Chaucer, and of much besides which has not been touched upon.

Of the divers crazy guesses, as to the origin of *for the nonce*, which have been put forth, there is an ample detail in both of Archdeacon Todd's editions of Johnson's *Dictionary*, but not a single glimmer of real light. Yet neither Messrs. Halliwell and Wright, in 1859, nor Dr. Richardson, so late as 1865, should have been unacquainted with the interesting discovery for which the credit belongs to Mr. Richard Price. Thanks to him, we now know that the phrase, in the antique forms of which the *n* of *nanes* is provectional, began from *for than anes*, *for then ones*, etc., "for the one," that is to say, "for the special occasion or purpose." Skinner, and his successors for a long period, as well, were unaware of the existence of *for then anes*, occurring, as elsewhere, in *The Liflade of St. Juliana;* and yet, possibly, they would have dispensed with blind conjecture, and theorized to good effect, if, while bearing in mind the old *nale*, *nanger*, *neyes*, *nother*, *nown*, *nuncle*, *the tone*, *the tother*, and so on, they had fallen in with and pondered the ensuing passages:

"Then the emperor was *content for that once*, and bade they should no more do so, but that the old ordinance ought to be kept." Rev. William Tyndale (1530), *Expositions and Notes* (1849), p. 266.

"Yet wil we so terme it *for this once*." Sir Thomas Hoby (*ut ante*), sig. H 5*r*.

"Fiue or sixe . . . plotted a solemne drinking at one of their houses, laid in Beere *for the once*, drunke healths in a strange manner, and died therof within a fewe weekes, some sooner and some later." Rev. Samuel Ward, *Woe to Drunkards* (1622), p. 28 (ed. 1627).

Nonest has been seen above; and Robert Greene, in his *James the Fourth*, has *nonst*. In these, *nones* is "corrupted by form-association with superlatives." Of the same character are *against*, *alongst*, *amidst*, *amongst*, and *anenst*.

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, January 15, 1897.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & Co. have in preparation a series of Lives of the Great Explorers, by well-known writers.

The New Amsterdam Book Co. announce 'Moltke's Letters to his Wife,' in two volumes; 'Reminiscences of a Yorkshire Naturalist,' by the late Prof. W. C. Williamson, edited by his wife; 'Animal Episodes and Studies in Sensation,' by G. H. Powell; 'How We Made Rhodesia,' by Maj. Arthur Glyn Leonard; 'A Narrative of the Boer War,' by Thomas Fortescue Carter; 'The Highland Brigade in the Crimea,' by Lt.-Col. Anthony Sterling; 'The Court of England under George IV.'; and 'From "The Bells" to "King Arthur,"' a critical record of the first-night productions at the Lyceum Theatre, London, by Clement Scott.

Fleming H. Revell Co. issue during the present month the Autobiography of the late Dr. Charles F. Deems, supplemented with a memoir by his sons.

Charles Scribner's Sons promise 'America and the Americans,' from a French point of view; 'American Lands and Letters,' by Donald G. Mitchell; and 'The Builders, and Other Poems,' by the Rev. Dr. Henry van Dyke.

'A Primer of Psychology,' by Prof. Edward B. Titchener of Cornell, will bear Macmillan's imprint, as will also Dr. Henry Sweet's forthcoming 'Students' Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.'

'Christian Citizenship,' by Dr. Carlos Martyn; 'Hero Tales from Sacred History,' by Dr. Louis Albert Banks; and 'The Epic of Paul,' by William Cleaver Wilkinson, are announced by Funk & Wagnalls.

'Walks and Rides about Boston,' by Edwin M. Bacon, author of the admirable Dictionary of that city, is to be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Copeland & Day will issue 'Miscellaneous Odes,' by Francis Thompson; 'Memorial Day, and Other Poems,' by Richard Burton of Hartford; 'A Book of Lyrics,' by Father Tabb; and another volume of verse by John Vance Cheney.

Way & Williams, Chicago, have nearly

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ready 'Hours with Famous Parisians,' by Stuart Henry.

A limited edition of 'The House of the Heart,' poems by Irving Brown, formerly editor of the Albany *Law Journal*, is in the press of the Peter Paul Book Co., Buffalo.

The American Baptist Publication Society have nearly ready 'Christianity and Property,' by Dr. A. E. Waffle, and 'The Conservative Principle in Our Literature,' by Dr. William R. Williams.

The Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind purposes to reprint in raised characters, for the use of its pupils, Mr. David A. Wells's little book, 'Robinson Crusoe's Money,' which is well known for the good service that it has done in educating the mentally blind as to what constitutes good money.

The Delegates of the Clarendon Press, Oxford, have determined on a standard and uniform series of Greek and Latin authors from the best manuscripts, for use in schools, colleges, and universities, and edited by the first English scholars.

Volume viii. of Mr. Charles Booth's 'Life and Labor of the People in London' (Macmillan) continues the classification of the population by trades, and contains also a "Picture of Pauperism" which resembles that drawn in 'The Jukes' by our countryman the late Richard Dugdale. Volume ix. and last of this great work is to appear presently; it will contain a summary and analysis of the previous volumes, and will also deal with the conclusions to be drawn from the whole inquiry.

Of service to lawyers is 'Bender's Lawyers' Diary and Directory for the State of New York,' for 1897 (Albany: Matthew Bender). Some sixty pages more of matter than in last year's issue testify to the publisher's intention to make it as comprehensive as possible.

Mr. Stopford A. Brooke's 'English Literature' (Macmillan) is the best small manual of the subject that we have seen. In 250 pages Mr. Brooke gives a clear and eminently readable sketch of the whole material, from the seventh century to the middle of the nineteenth. Furthermore—and in this point he does not resemble some other writers of handbooks—he proceeds on the basis of a really intimate acquaintance with a large part of the field. It is easy to pick flaws, and we have noted a number of errors and omissions in matters of detail; but, on the whole, the book is admirably fitted for its purpose.

Mme. Darmesteter (Miss Mary Robinson) has translated, under the title of 'English Studies,' a number of essays by her late husband, the lamented Orientalist, James Darmesteter, which have to do with English literature and kindred matters. Darmesteter's versatility was surprising, and his feeling for life and literature was keen and fresh to a degree not always found in men of his erudition. He knew the English mind and character well, and whatever he had to say about it deserves attention. The volume before us, then, is worth reading, though the papers it contains were not meant for immortality. Their "occasional" character is, of course, no drawback to the "occasional" reader, for whom, indeed, they are primarily meant. There is a touching preface by the translator, and an excellent portrait of the author adds to the attractiveness of the book.

Everybody yields to the charm of Mr. Austin Dobson's 'Eighteenth Century Vignettes,' and everybody will therefore be glad to see the third series of them, which is now on our table (Dodd, Mead & Co.). There is no falling off in the interest, no lack of spirit and variety. Mr. Dobson is an unsurpassed artist in minutiæ. He takes infinite pains with trifling details of manners or letters, not because he exaggerates their importance in themselves, but because he has a just sense of what they mean in their relation to the century as a whole. His talent in extracting diversion and enlightenment out of anything and everything—an old catalogue, for example, of a not very remarkable library—is remarkable. We have nothing but commendation for this new volume, which, we take it, does not contain more than half-a-dozen dull lines.

Hertz's "Miscellaneous Papers," of which we have a translation by the hands of D. E. Jones and G. A. Schott (Macmillan), form the first volume of the collected works of this brilliant investigator as edited by his friend and pupil, Dr. Philipp Lenard. They number twenty-two; most of them on the earlier investigations which Hertz carried out before the great electrical researches by which he is best known. To these are added the Heidelberg lecture "On the Relations between Light and Electricity" of 1889, his tribute to his great master, Helmholtz, 1891, and his investigation "On the Passage of Cathode Rays through Thin Metallic Layers," 1892. These last, and the research, "Experiments on the Cathode Discharge," are the papers which have the widest interest. In an introduction of seventeen pages Dr. Lenard gives a very interesting sketch of Hertz's scientific career up to the time of his epoch-making discovery of the electric waves. In 1877, at the age of twenty, he went to Munich to carry on the engineering studies to which he had decided to devote himself; but at this point he began to doubt whether his natural inclination lay in this direction, and soon determined to turn to physics. A year later he went to Berlin to become the pupil of Helmholtz and Kirchhoff. There he remained, the latter part of the time as Helmholtz's assistant, until his removal to Kiel as privat-docent in 1883. Immediately on his arrival in Berlin he was led to attempt the solution of a problem in regard to electric inertia which had been proposed as a prize research, and was successful in winning the prize and the high commendation of the faculty. In 1880 he took his degree. His prize research and his inaugural dissertation are the first and the longest papers in this collection. Much interest is added to the brief narrative by extracts from his letters to his parents during this period of his life.

Prof. A. Cartault's 'Étude sur les Bucoliques de Virgile' (Paris: Colin) is an interesting and original book of 500 pages written on the high lines of literary criticism of the classics in which the French excel. Of its thirteen chapters, the first deals with the youth, the patrons, and the friends of Virgil; the second is a study of the chronological order of the Eclogues; the next ten are devoted each to a single eclogue; and the last treats *les réalités rustiques* in Virgil's Eclogues and in the first eleven Idyls of Theocritus. The main object of the book is to set forth what can be exactly discovered about the youth of Virgil, and to study the formation of his poetic talent. The author investigates carefully the poet's studies and his sources, and shows how Virgil used these sources, sometimes translating almost literally, again imitating freely, now departing so far from his models as to produce what is practically an original work. To follow Virgil as his genius developed and as he grew year by year more sure of himself and of his own inspiration, is a fascinating pursuit, and the book will commend itself to every lover of the great Roman bard.

How much may be made of a dry subject is well shown in Lee Phillips's 'Virginia Cartography,' forming No. 1039 of the Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections. Mr. Phillips gives a list of such maps of Virginia as he has met, and a full history of each one, making an invaluable guide to his subject. The list is a long one, beginning with the 1585 map of John With or White, who has been identified with John White the Governor by Kohl and Stevens, but contrary to the record, as Mr. Phillips has good reasons for believing, and ends with the latest railroad map by an American house. Of John Smith's map, to which high praise is justly given, four impressions are described, and much attention is given to the map of Virginia Farrer, one of the few examples of woman's handiwork in that line. From Smith to Jefferson and Fry only one map became acceptable as a standard, that of Herman, the founder of Bohemia Manor, who made the drawing in 1670. Of interest is the note on the map appearing in the English edition of Washington's Journal in 1754, which Mr. Phillips traces to the *London Magazine*. It is natural to find that the French war (1755–1763) and the Revolution (1774–1783) stimulated the issue of maps by English and French, some of which deserve to take very high rank as examples of artistic map-making. Mr. Phillips is entitled to great credit for his labors, which will be useful to every American library. The proof-reading has been carelessly done, as not a few typographical errors are to be found.

The Consular Reports for January are largely taken up with an account of land taxation and labor laws in New Zealand. This is in response to "many hundreds of letters" of inquiry received by our consul at Auckland within the past two years from intending emigrants from the United States to that country. The terms on which land can be obtained are reasonable, but the cost of clearing it, the lack of a local market, the poor roads and the small profits on shipments to England more than offset this advantage. The consul at Barcelona reports that during the season of 1896 "there were 478 bull-fights in Spain, and 1,218 bulls and 5,730 horses were killed." The value of these animals and the wages of the twenty-three matadores were about three-quarters of a million of dollars. The most famous of the matadores, Guerrita, "appeared in sixty-eight fights, killed 174 bulls, and received in all $51,000."

The ninth report emanating from the Massachusetts Commissioner of Public Records shows that Rhode Island has followed in the wake of its neighbor State, and that Connecticut is likely to come next. Mr. Swan for the first time makes a complete tabular statement of what has been achieved by his office in the preservation of municipal records since 1890. It is a very remarkable proof of efficiency; but Mr. Swan still advocates a public-record office. He has another amusing chapter on the overburdened town clerk and his miserable compensation (when there is any). The craze for genealogical research, it seems, is now increasing his burden, but not his fees. Were he held responsible for non-performance of every duty exacted of him by law, every clerk's office in the State would stand vacant. In reference to binding, Mr. Swan points out the superiority of canvas to leather, as resisting damp, heat, or fire (even in a safe); and

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as Pennsylvania has legalized typewritten records, he warns imitators that ribbons charged with permanent ink should be insisted upon.

From the seventeenth annual report of the New York Free Circulating Library, it appears, by actual observation in April last, that in history, biography, and travels a larger percentage of works (mostly juvenile, doubtless) is taken out by children than by adults. The library has begun a sort of card-catalogue of criticisms "clipped from the current literary magazines which were formerly sold for old paper," to be accessible to the public. Books, too, hopelessly worn out are no longer sold as waste, but are devoted to the city asylums and prisons. These economies remind us of the use of the discarded leather coverings of car-seats on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad for bookbindings in the travelling library maintained by that road.

The past month ushered in the Bulletin of the New York Public Library, a most interesting document. It gives a succinct account of the origin of the several Astor, Lenox, and Tilden foundations, their status in funds and volumes at the close of the year 1894, and of the steps taken for consolidation and the procuring of a site for the new building. The Tilden endowment, estimated at $2,000,000, is about twice that of the Astor, which is again twice that of the Lenox (apart from a life interest yet pending). The Director, Dr. John S. Billings, tells of the vigorous measures initiated, since his accession, at both the existing libraries, for shelving and cataloguing, supplying books of reference for free consultation, and making periodicals subscribed for available before binding. He also enumerates the more important gifts of the past year, three of the items coming from England.

The gratifying announcement is made in the *Library Journal* for January that the 'American Catalogue' for 1890-'95 is ready for the binder. The same number contains the proceedings of a recent meeting of the New York Library Club with the New York State Library Association, at which the best books of 1896 were discussed in classes by several reporters. In the juvenile field, according to Miss Hewins, no very good book had been produced—"that is, no book worthy to be put into the A. L. A. selected list."

Following the *Zeitschrift für Schulgeographie* that has been established for a number of years in Germany, the first number of a *Journal of School Geography* has just been issued under the editorship of Prof. R. E. Dodge of Teachers' College, New York, in association with Mr. Hayes of the United States Geological Survey, Prof. Kümmel of Lewis Institute, Chicago, Prof. McMurray of the Buffalo School of Pedagogy, and Prof. Davis and Mr. Ward of Harvard. "Each of the editors is a worker in geography, either as an investigator or teacher, or both. Every one is now teaching or has taught; all have to do with the problems of the schools; and several are making these problems their chief study." In spite of the number of periodicals now issued, and of the considerable number devoted to the general interests of secondary education, there is a distinct need of a special journal covering the field here entered. The first number contains several articles giving a variety of practical counsel and information, both helpful and useful to teachers. Subscriptions ($1.00 a year) may be sent to the publishers, 41 North Queen Street, Lancaster, Pa.

The *Annales de Géographie* for January contains an article on the transcription of geographical names, with especial reference to Russian, and a description of the geographical divisions of Brittany. In an interesting account of the different projects for increasing the navigability of the Loire, attention is called to the steady decline of the cities on its banks in industries and population. Nantes, for instance, which, a century ago, was the first port in France, is now the twelfth in rank. This is due largely to the fact that for two-thirds or three-quarters of the year the difficulties presented by the shifting channel and low water are so great as practically to close navigation. There is also a study of the characteristics of the races inhabiting the valley of the upper Nile, with an ethnographical chart, and an encouraging review of the success of the new methods of agricultural instruction introduced six years ago into the primary and grammar schools of Belgium.

Among the contents of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for December is a story of exploration in northeastern Iceland, and a lively description of Erzerum and Trebizond. Erzerum Dr. Saad calls a "city of the dead" from the appalling misery of its inhabitants since the massacres. The annual summary of geographical literature for the year shows a considerable falling off from that of 1895. Europe holds the first place with nearly a third of the 801 works noticed, and is followed at a long distance by America, Asia, and Africa. There are supplemental numbers on the geological results of recent explorations in Central Asia and China, and (by Dr. Karl Dove) on the topography, climate, flora, fauna, and resources of South Damaraland in German southwest Africa. This country apparently has little mineral wealth, and the soil is too poor to sustain a large population, while to buy grazing land and stock a ranch—the only profitable industry—would require a large outlay of capital from which there would be no return for ten years.

The principal article in the Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund is Dr. Bliss's report of his excavations in Jerusalem. The extent of his work may be realized from the fact that during the past year he has opened a mile of tunnels. The dimensions of the true Pool of Siloam have been determined, and the ruins of an ancient church on its north side have been discovered. Mr. Gray Hill begins an account of a successful journey to Petra in 1896, and there is an interesting description of a visit to the cave of Machpelah in Hebron, by a Jew in 1523, with comments by Canon Dalton, one of the very few Christians who have been permitted to examine the interior of the mosque built over the cave.

Cosmopolis, the triglot review, is about to become in certain countries a tetraglot. Henceforth in Russia there will be annexed to the present French, German, and English divisions a Russian part. A like experiment will soon be tried in Italy and in Denmark, where the subscribers of the review will find in each month's issue an Italian or a Danish addition. The main body of the review will remain as it is, constant, but there will be special editions for circulation in certain countries, with a supplement in the vernacular of each of these.

For many reasons unusual interest has attached to the efforts of the friends of Colorado College to raise the $150,000 necessary to secure the conditional gift of $50,000 by Dr. Pearsons of Chicago. His offer was made just before the panic of 1893—a panic which reduced many of the local benefactors of the college to comparative poverty, and which aroused such manifestations of feeling in Colorado towards the Eastern section of the country as might have seemed to a cynical observer sufficient to quench the very spirit of benevolence. In spite of these adverse conditions, and although the revenue of the college was seriously affected, the faculty and students by their devotion and self-sacrifice encouraged the friends of the institution to renewed efforts, which have finally been crowned with success. The number of contributors to the fund surpasses 1,000; and more than $100,000 has come from donors in the Eastern States. Independently of the great work which a college situated as this one is has to perform—it is not aided by the State Government—and which itself constitutes a patriotic appeal, it certainly seems as if no more impressive lesson to the promoters of sectional prejudice could be given than the generosity with which benevolent people from all parts of the country have responded to this appeal.

—A noteworthy incident in the preparation for independence is followed out in the *American Historical Review* for January by Andrew McFarland Davis, who sets forth the case of Frost vs. Leighton. The matter came before the Superior Court of Judicature of the Massachusetts Bay, which, by a decision rendered in 1738 and repeated in 1739, "refused to enforce an order issued by his Majesty in Council, because the powers of the court derived through the charter and the laws passed to carry the same into effect, were, in the judgment of the court, inadequate for that purpose." The case is as interesting as it is historically important. Gaillard Hunt contributes an amusing and instructive article on office-seeking during John Adams's Administration. Adams's sentiments about appointments were high toned, but certainly modified in practice at a time when "offensive partisanship" was much more common with Federal officials than now. In other respects, this generation may recognize itself in these century-old documents from the State Department. The American field is also well cultivated by Joseph S. Walton in "Nominating Conventions in Pennsylvania," and by Frederick W. Moore in "Representation in Congress from the Seceding States 1861-'65," a first paper, "limited to the cases in which the respective houses of Congress judged the qualifications of applicants for membership from the States in insurrection," and designed as an introduction to the difficult subject of Reconstruction. Among the Original Documents are Marshall's letters to Washington when Envoy to France, and Cobden's letters to Sumner during our civil war. These last, with some lack of insight, are able comments from an outsider friendly to the North, but who would have tolerated both the economic and the moral enormity of slavery rather than support a war for abolition—who, in fact, might have been a pacific member of the Peace Congress on the eve of hostilities. Much of his criticism may still be taken to heart. "I wish," he writes on January 11, 1865, "I could see more intelligence in your midst on questions of finance and political economy. Your Congress seems to me just about on a level with the British Parliament of 1818, before Huskisson commenced his first reforms of our fiscal system which were afterwards followed up by Peel and Gladstone." And on March 2: "The country is revelling in a saturnalia of greenbacks and Government expenditure, and

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is under a delusion that it is a genuine prosperity. It is destined to a rude disenchantment, and this will test the statesmanship of the Republican party." In thirty-two years, except for resumption of specie payments, we have not budged an inch!

—Mr. C. H. Firth prints, in the January number of the *English Historical Review*, Thomas Scot's account of his actions as "intelligencer" during the period of the Commonwealth. Scot entered the Long Parliament in 1645, sided with the Independents in the struggles of 1647 and 1648, and was one of the judges who condemned Charles I. He strongly opposed the Protectorate, and in his confession pronounces Cromwell "one of the greatest tyrants England ever saw or felt." In January, 1660, Scot became Secretary of State, but, after the readmission of the members who had been excluded in 1648, he took refuge in the Netherlands, where he was shortly afterwards induced to surrender; on October 17 he was executed. He held the office of intelligencer from 1649 to 1653, and in 1659 was reappointed; but his confessions, which he seems to have been led to believe would save his life, appear not to have been thought important enough to protect him. His account, however, throws considerable light upon the foreign and domestic intrigues of the time, and is enlivened by naïve characterizations of those whom he employed as tools. One of his first acts was to inform himself of the doings and plans of the Levellers, with the result that four of them were soon imprisoned. He held weekly correspondence with Cromwell while the latter was in Ireland, meantime keeping agents actively employed in Scotland. Werden, his principal agent in France, "played a double game," and later, instead of keeping his promise to "renew his *correspondence & discoverys*" at Brussels, became a leader in Booth's rising. Another emissary, Lewis de Bourgoigne, travelled from Calais to Bordeaux, working among the adherents of the Prince of Condé as the ones most likely to favor the English "had there been occasion ministred of attempting them by land." A correspondence with Cardinal de Retz came to nothing. The threatened intervention of the Duke of Lorraine kept Scot busy, not only in Flanders, but especially in Rome, where some of the Cardinals with whom his "instruments" had influence "were led to beleeve that G. Cromwell was much disposed to a liberty of Religion, if not formall tolleration of Popery, and would much incline the Parliament thereto, and therefor that it was not safe to provoke either." In the end, the Duke failed to obtain the aid and "spirituall benediction" he desired. The agent set to watch Lilburne in Holland was unsuccessful, for the reason, so runs the confession, that "John's genius was too mighty for him." Scot knew, chiefly by means of intercepted cipher dispatches, of the progress of negotiations between the King and the Presbyterians; but a proposition to betray the King into his hands he "peremptorily and in a few words renounc'd," as "unsuitable to Christianity." When the army turned against the Parliament, in November, 1659, Scott committed to Col. Bampfield the task of reconciling him to the King; but of the outcome of the mission, or whether, indeed, it was ever seriously undertaken, he never knew.

—No great name of the first rank appears in the 49th volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan). Nevertheless, there is plenty of fame between the two covers, from Robinsons (filling 57 pages) to Russells (filling 68), and a deal of interesting reading. The American contingent is rather small—John Rolfe, Mary Rowlandson (the Indian captive), the Rev. Ezekiel Rogers of Rowley, Mass., and John Robinson, the Pilgrims' pastor before the exodus from Leyden, whose autograph signature is preserved in a book in the British Museum. We might add Gen. Ross, who burnt the capitol at Washington in the war of 1812, for which his biographer supplies approval rather than extenuation. Under John Robinson, we observe (p. 21) a faulty first initial ("W.") for the late Dr. Henry M. Dexter, a Puritan apologist who agreed with Dr. Palfrey in deducing a nominal flogging of Obadiah Holmes in Boston in 1651 from the victim's exalted account of his feelings, as if "struck with roses." The same logic would make the burning of the martyr Rogers perfunctory, for we read on p. 129 of the Dictionary that his children (*teste* Count Noailles) comforted him "in such manner that it seemed as if he had been led to a wedding." Sir Boyle Roche's most famous bull is tacitly discredited by his biographer, who tells us that his speeches were prepared by others for his amazing perversion in delivery. The poet Rogers receives very amiable treatment, with good reason. We are reminded that Prince Rupert was one of the founders of the Hudson's Bay Company. Lord John Russell has hardly a better title to distinction than his eleven years' persistence in removing the Jewish disability to sit in the House of Commons on behalf of Lionel Nathan Rothschild, who, with his kindred, also figures at length in this instalment of the Dictionary.

—With volume iv. Mr. Conway brings to an end his edition of the writings of Thomas Paine (Putnams). There can be no question of the value of this edition, which takes a high place at once as the only complete collection of Paine, and largely because of the diligent labors of the editor. This volume contains the 'Age of Reason' and the controversies growing out of it. The original edition is made the basis of the reprint, allowing the correction of some curious errors that have crept into the text in the many reprints. The history of the work is well told by Mr. Conway, but he could not refrain from once more referring to the malice of Morris and the perfidy of Washington. Paine says so much in his own defence, as well as to his own injury, that it was unnecessary to seek so forced an explanation of the sufferings he endured in his struggles for free thought. Some political writings, of little value, and some interesting scientific papers fill out the volume. We doubt the expediency of printing the poetic attempts of Paine. They might be cited as evidence of his versatility; but they are poor stuff at best, and not above the level of the squib-writer of the day. Mr. Conway's notes are full, and usually in excellent taste, and he naturally places a very high estimate upon the services of Paine, whom he calls "the great commoner of mankind, founder of the republic of the world, and emancipator of the human mind and heart." A sentence in the introduction informs us that Mr. Conway intends to write a defence of citizen Genet, of whose career in America very little good can be said. It is difficult to believe that to such a crack-brained diplomat it was seriously proposed to intrust "Louis Capet" for transportation to America. Yet Mr. Conway thinks it was so.

—Gen. Nelson A. Miles's 'Personal Recollections and Observations' are published in small quarto by the Werner Co. (Chicago and New York) with all the attractions of the subscription-book of the better sort. The reproductions in full page of Remington's illustrations are very spirited and taking. The portion of the book which narrates Gen. Miles's personal and very important part in recent Indian wars is original matter of a high order, and is authoritative in the best sense. His keen and just perception of the true origin of the conflicts, and of the special character they take from the nature of the Indian, is most instructive. His references to Indian habits, morals, ideals, purposes, and standards of right are those of an expert whose sense of justice has made him take a kindly view of the red man, while he does not ignore the barbarism in which the race is still sunken. He adds his weighty testimony to that of leading military men who have gone before him, in saying that he has never known an Indian war in which the white man was not the aggressor. Wherever he touches the personal life of the Indian or of the frontiersman, his lines are true and firm—a graphic reproduction of his own experiences. The rest of the book is of much less value. The autobiographic outline is especially meagre in regard to the civil war, in which the author's career was a most brilliant one. The dissertation on aboriginal ethnography is neither a scientific treatise nor a popular sketch. It falls short of the one and is too full for the other. The picture of the development and progress of the West has too much of the quality of the guide-book or gazetteer. A less pretentious volume, consisting of the chapters on the author's own experience and observation of the Indians, would have a prominent place in every library, and, written as these are with the *verve* and strength of a competent man on ground which is his own, would give Gen. Miles a much better literary reputation than the bulky book as a whole is likely to make.

—Mr. Goldwin Smith's 'Guesses at the Riddle of Existence' (Macmillan) come to us as a welcome reminder of the fact that six and thirty years ago he encountered the redoubtable Dean Mansel on the battlefields of theological metaphysics, and added philosophic laurels to his chaplet by his attack on the famous Bampton Lectures, in which Mansel, in his anxiety to disarm rationalism, "inadvertently demonstrated the impossibility of believing in God" and became "an awful warning to the polemical tactician," as his former adversary takes occasion to impress upon Mr. Balfour. Mr. Goldwin Smith's attitude then was that of a liberal thinker, loath to give up the spiritual heritage of civilization, except under the stress of the more imperious demands of truth and sincerity; it has not changed since, though the march of events has put a more agnostic complexion on his views. His method also has remained the same, and his guesses at truth retain the form of criticisms of other people's guesses, as clear in thought and as felicitous in expression as of yore. With a sureness of touch and lucidity of statement which it would be well for professed philosophers to imitate, he exposes the hollowness of the current nostrums intended for the cure of our spiritual ailment; but of positive conclusion there is little or nothing. No one evidently regrets this more than Mr. Goldwin Smith himself: he sees trouble everywhere in the social atmosphere, and "the storm-centre of the trouble seems to be in the region of re-

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ligion"; he sees also the source of the trouble, but nowhere a remedy. Yet he declines to declare himself an agnostic. He will not say, as so many, that the search for light on the riddle of existence must or should be abandoned, or that our perplexity makes no practical difference. And for that surely he deserves such thanks as Rome accorded to the vanquished Varro after his defeat at Cannæ—the thanks due to one who does not despair of the human reason and its satisfaction.

—Macmillan publishes a limited large-paper edition, of 500 copies, of Irving's 'Alhambra' with Mr. Pennell's illustrations, which contains, besides all the matter of the ordinary edition, twelve lithographs, by Mr. Pennell, of views in the old Moorish palace. In spite of the generous praise which Mr. Whistler has lavished upon these plates, we cannot think them unqualified successes, or that their presence is any great addition to the value of the book. Their size makes them unpleasant as illustrations, while their marginless state renders it difficult to judge fairly of their merit as independent works of art; but it seems to us evident that Mr. Pennell has by no means yet mastered the resources of an art that is new to him, and has tried to render by its means effects much more suited to his tried implement the pen. The charm of lithography is in the facility it gives for multiplied and soft half tones; it is essentially a *gray method*. The glitter of sunlight on sharp and complicated architectural forms demands the crisp incisiveness of the pen point for its suggestion. Mr. Pennell has tried to use pen-technique for the production of pen-and-ink effects with no better tool than the soft lithographic crayon, and the result is that his lithographs are a sort of weaker and woolly pen-drawings. Once or twice, indeed, there is a suggestion of the glow of light rather than the glitter; but, in general, the pen drawings in this volume seem to us much more successful renderings of the scenes attempted than do the lithographs.

—M. Eugène Müntz has written a sound and thorough monograph on the 'Tapestries of Raphael,' which is published, in a sumptuous limited edition of 330 copies, by J. Rothschild of Paris (New York: Brentano's). As M. Müntz is well known as an authority on Raphael and as an authority on tapestry, he was doubly fitted for the execution of his present task, and the work contains everything that is known concerning Raphael's tapestries and those which have been attributed to him. In one place we think he has made a slight slip, but he himself furnishes the material for its correction. In discussing the series of tapestries of playing children which Giovanni da Udine designed for Leo X., he demonstrates that these were twenty in number, but in reconstructing the list from all available sources the number seems to amount to twenty-one. It is evident that there is a mistake somewhere, and, after describing, from an old inventory, Nos. XIX. (Children with Paroquets) and XX. (Children with a Pheasant, or Children with a Woodpecker and a Partridge), he hazards the remark that "il est fort probable que l'une de ces deux pièces fait double emploi avec celles qui ont été décrites ci-dessus." It seems to us quite evident from the descriptions alone that the doubling is in another place, and the illustrations render it absolutely certain that Nos. XIV., a tapestry in the collection of the Princess Mathilde, and XXI., a drawing in the print-room of the Berlin Museum, are identical. In order to make his list tally, M. Müntz has but to omit his last number entirely and add the reference to the Berlin drawing to his No. XIV. The book is published in a large quarto, paper-covered, beautifully printed, and lavishly illustrated with nine plates on copper and 125 text cuts, and furnished with title-page, dedication, etc., in colors, and with rubricated initials. Two of the plates are etchings of Raphael's portraits of himself and of Leo X.; the other seven are the special glory of the book, being photogravure plates from the celebrated Hampton Court cartoons, which have now been photographed for the first time by special permission of the Queen of England, to whom the volume is dedicated. They do not all reach the highest level of execution, but they afford the best means, short of a trip to London, now attainable for the study of these works, while the minor illustrations take the place of study in half the capitals of Europe. Here is a veritable feast for the amateur of art.

—Some interesting legal questions have arisen in reference to the Goncourt bequest, and while there has been no intervention on the part of the natural heirs of Edmund de Goncourt, and no attempt to break the will, MM. Daudet and Hennique, the testamentary executors, have been in a good deal of doubt as to what was the best course for them to follow, and the foundation of the Académie des Goncourts has been considerably delayed. It was a philosophical and literary will that M. de Goncourt composed for himself, rather than one in strict legal form. He bequeathed his estate to a future academy which was, at the time he made his will, non-existent, having neither moral nor physical personality, and so being incapable of inheriting anything. This was pointed out to him by his notary, and he then added a codicil by the terms of which MM. Daudet and Hennique were made his universal legatees. There seems to be some doubt whether the courts may not hold that this is an evasion of the law, and it is said that there is some possibility that certain distant relatives of M. de Goncourt may raise the question, although nearer ones have declined to do so. But at any rate the sales of the Goncourt pictures and objects of art will go on as they had been planned. The first sale will take place on February 13, when will be offered the collection of drawings, about the value of which there have been so many conflicting reports. In the opinion of M. Georges Duchesne, who has charge of the sale, Goncourt himself was not mistaken in their value, and they will probably bring in the sum at which he estimated them. The second sale will take place on February 20, and will include the objects of art. Afterwards, at about the beginning of March, the Chinese and Japanese collections will be sold, and this will take at least an entire week. MM. Roger Marx, Bracquemond, and de Chennevière, in accordance with the wishes of M. de Goncourt, have arranged and classified these collections and made the catalogue of them. Two catalogues, in fact, will be published: one, a magnificent volume, with elaborate prefaces and illustrations, which will be sold at 40f.; the other, a résumé only, to be given away. Finally, in April, Goncourt's copyrights will be sold, and the well-known house at Auteuil, so that it is expected that the whole value of the estate will be in hand by the 1st of June, when, if no legal obstacles arise, the foundation of the new academy will be made.

HARPER'S CLASSICAL DICTIONARY.

Harper's Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquities. Edited by Harry Thurston Peck. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers. 1897.

THE plan of this work is truly encyclopædic. It aims "to give in a single volume the substance of all the information that it has hitherto been necessary to seek among many books and in many places." This information is classed in the preface under nine heads: biography, including the Christian fathers and the great classical scholars and philologists of modern times; mythology; geography; history; literature; antiquities, including public and private life, military, religious, and legal antiquities, music, philosophy, science, and epigraphy; language—including (among others) articles on Grimm's and Verner's laws—pronunciation, the *sermo plebeius*, dialects, and grammar; bibliography, brought down to the latest investigations; and illustrations.

Naturally, the book is a large one. It contains 1,700 pages of the size of Harper's Latin Lexicon (which is itself a work of a little over 2,000 pages). It is excellently printed in good type. The quality of the paper is well fitted to set off the 1,500 illustrations without being so shiny as to make reading a disagreeable task. At first sight one feels nothing but gratitude to Professor Peck for the labor which he has undertaken. As Livy remarked of his own work, *Res est immensi operis.* A book of this sort has long been needed, and this one will, we have no doubt, find a permanent place in every public library of importance and upon the shelves of a vast number of classical students and men of liberal culture. It is matter for great regret to us that we cannot add that it will be found completely trustworthy.

No one man's knowledge would fit him, in these days of specializing, to prepare a work of this magnitude. Prof. Peck has realized this fact to a certain extent, but not by any means fully enough. We do, indeed, learn from the preface that special articles have been written for the dictionary by twenty-six eminent scholars whose names are duly given; but examination shows that they contribute only about 131 pages, or less than 8 per cent. of the whole work. For the rest of it the editor declares himself solely responsible, and adds that he has devoted to it, for nearly five years, every hour that could be spared from other arduous duties. This period, even had it been entirely devoted to the dictionary, can scarcely be considered very long for such a task, and here again Prof. Peck has underestimated the seriousness of his undertaking. In spite of the numerous excellent hand-books and dictionaries, like those of Marquardt, Hermann, Göll, Lipsius, Blümner, I. Müller, Gilbert, Baumeister, Smith, Seyffert, and Schneider, the field is too great for one man to reap in any reasonable time, and the crop, while far from being in this instance a total failure, is yet foredoomed to disappoint the vows of the single laborer.

Everybody will be grateful for such articles as those on Umbria by Bücheler, Persia by Geldner, Pindar by Gildersleeve, India by Lanman, Homer by Seymour, and Lexicography by Lewis. Those on Ennius and the Senecas, Pompeii, Satire, Terence, Sermo Plebeius, and Grimm's and Verner's Laws, by Cruttwell, Lanciani, Pease, Ashmore, Cooper, and Wheeler, call also for special praise. Tarbell's archæological and architectural articles, too, are just what were to be expected

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from his accurate knowledge and precise skill in definition. Of the articles by the editor himself, high commendation is to be given to those on Domus, Theatrum, Musica, and Balneum; and space will not allow us to chronicle his successes in details. Where so much has been done, and well done, it seems rank ingratitude to criticise severely; yet the editor's own acknowledgment that he knows his book to be open to charges of inconsistency and error, must not prevent us from indicating some of the faults which are to be found in it.

Next to a false reference to authorities, there are few things so exasperating in a dictionary as a false *cross*-reference. To refer the reader to a second and perhaps to a third article, and to furnish the promised information in neither, is a practical joke of a very disagreeable kind. This book is not free from such jokes. For example, under *Caricature* we are referred to *Pictura*, for *Hypogæum* to *Sepulcrum*, for *Timema* under *Dikē* to the word itself, and under that to *Judicial Procedure*, and we get no comfort anywhere. Under *Pirene*, we are told that, according to one tradition, Pegasus struck out this spring on the citadel of Corinth, while under *Pegasus* it is said that the production of Hippocrene was the only connection of Pegasus with the Muses; for another tradition about Pirene we are referred to *Sisyphus*, where there is nothing whatever on the subject.

Of misprints the book is pretty free; we note Brune for Brunn in the preface, Rumfel for Rumpel under *Pindar*, 'Livy Epit. 140' for '142' under *Drusus*. Quantity seems to be marked only in cases where reasonable doubt might arise in the ordinary reader's mind, and the short and long marks are both used. It would have been better, perhaps, to mark only those penults which are known to be long. Why should we find *Patrŏcles* (the general), but in the very next article *Patroclus* or *Patrocles* (the hero)? And what is the evidence for *Cleopātra?*

Another needless aggravation is the frequent omission of the exact sources from which illustrations are taken. In these days the matter is easily settled, and every serious scholar wants to know the authority upon which a picture depends. "From a lamp," "from a cameo," "from a frieze at Rome," "restoration"—such indications are most unscholarly and all but useless. And while the editor has in general avoided the more common pitfalls—for example, we rejoice that at last in a reference book the student is warned against the old fraud called "the baths of Titus"—yet many will look with a good deal more than doubt upon a collection in which are included (without a word of caution) the three "portraits" of Horace here given. As for the cut called "Cleopatra, Painting on slate, from the Villa of Hadrian," Prof. Peck ought to have searched and learned that no genuine paintings have ever been found in this villa, and that the picture in question has been hawked for years about the museums of Europe and America, only to be repudiated. The right hand alone is enough to stamp the whole as a forgery. Many of the other illustrations are well executed, yet there are some outline cuts which are caricatures of the originals and merely serve to disfigure the book. Such, for instance, are the map of Italy, the cuts of the Venus of Milo, of certain coins, of a bust of Sallust, of the Roman wolf. In this time of photography and cheap process cuts there is not the slightest excuse for such crude performances, or for fancy pictures inherited, many of them, from untrustworthy books like Rich or the 'Museo Borbonico.' Publishers ought to be ashamed to serve up the old things over and over again.

Alma-Tadema's "Symposium" is reproduced in a rather poorly executed cut. The original itself is fair game for criticism, but this cut makes the two banqueters look like a pair of boozy tramps. On the whole, the admission of any modern pictures into a serious book on classical antiquity is a doubtful experiment, and certainly this particular choice was needless, since there are plenty of ancient representations of the symposium which might have been used. And if we *must* have a modern picture of Sappho, Cipollini's monograph would perhaps have saved Prof. Peck from another selection from the English school.

In the department of Attic legal antiquities the editor is far from being at his best. No bibliography is given under *Judicial Procedure* or under *Dikē*, and there is much repetition in the two articles. The old edition of the 'Attischer Process' is cited under the latter; the revision by Lipsius under *Paragraphe*. Under *Anacrisis* (where the book is called *Prozess*), the explanation of διαμαρτυρία is incorrect; under *Metœci*, the statement is not true that with ἰσοτέλεια followed naturally the right to own land, since a separate decree gave this privilege. The definition of *Psephus* is not borne out by the accompanying illustration, and the cross-reference to *Dikē* does not help at all.

Under *Tibia* and *Capistrum* the editor shows that he is not acquainted with Howard's treatise (the only one in English worth reading) on the ancient pipe; under *Symmoria* he seems not to know the textual question regarding the number of citizens who might unite to furnish a trireme. Under *Hercules*, we find no mention of him as a god of marriage; under *Cruquius* there is no allusion to the burning question of the genuineness of his MSS. of Horace. From the statement under *Æschylus* one would suppose that the editor thinks that the "Choephori" is found in only one MS. Under *Livius* we are willing to believe that Professor Peck means one hundred and twenty-one when he says that the first *twenty-one* books were not published until after the death of Augustus. There is no 'door-bell' actually mentioned in Suet. *Aug.* 91, nor is it certain that bells for summoning servants are meant in Sen. *de Ira*, 3, 35. The reference to the *Pseudolus* in the same article (*Tintinnabulum*) should be 1, 3, 98 (or better, verse 332), not 1, 3, 112. The whole article on bells might be greatly improved. No source is given for the picture that accompanies it. Under *Apollonius* of Tralles, it is said that he and his countryman Tauriscus were the sculptors of the Laocoön! Under *Album* (in the appendix), one of the numerous Pompeian election posters in favor of M. Cerrinius Vatia is called a notice "advertising a scribe."

In this review we have purposely touched upon the most diverse topics. It is evident that the editor should have divided up his great subject, intrusting each principal field to a sub-editor, and reserving for himself the general supervision and the writing of those articles only for which his studies had peculiarly fitted him.

A PRE-RAPHAELITE *AVANT LA LETTRE.*

Ford Madox Brown: A Record of His Life and Work. By Ford M. Hueffer. With numerous reproductions. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896. Pp. xx, 459.

When the definitive history of that artistic movement known as Pre-Raphaelitism comes to be written, a very large place in it will be given to a never very celebrated or very successful artist who died, almost in obscurity, on October 6, 1893. Whether or not Ford Madox Brown may properly be considered the true founder of Pre-Raphaelitism, his grandson, the writer of the present volume, is amply justified by the facts in calling him its precursor. An older man than any of the "brothers," the chosen master of Rossetti, and the adviser (if not strictly the master) of Hunt, his influence upon these young men must have been great. He never joined the Brotherhood himself, and several reasons have been given for it. There is even a contradiction of memory as to whether he was ever asked to do so. A comparison of the statements of Brown himself, of Holman Hunt, and of others would seem to show that if he was not formally asked, it was because he did not care to be, and that the obstacle was simply his greater age and experience, which rendered him somewhat less enthusiastic than his young friends, and gave him a distrust of brotherhoods and formal associations as leading to "cliquishness." In his art he was for many years more Pre-Raphaelite than almost any of the Brotherhood, and he remained a Pre-Raphaelite longer than any of them, except Holman Hunt, who has never changed.

Ford Madox Brown was born in Calais in the year 1821, the son of a retired purser of the British Navy, who resided abroad for reasons of economy. He early showed artistic tastes, and began the formal study of painting as a pupil of Gregorius of Bruges at the age of fourteen. In 1838 he became a pupil of Wappers at Antwerp, and it was the knowledge then acquired that gave him prestige, when he went to England, as a technician and as one who "was up in the Belgian School." On just how much technical achievement this reputation was based it is difficult for one to say who has not seen his earlier works. His methods were so revolutionized afterwards that his early training in painting went for nothing. His drawings, in the examples here given us, are almost incredibly feeble in handling. How he learned to paint may be well understood from his own words:

> "Those were the days," he says, "when my respected master, the late Baron Wappers, having been commissioned by his Government to paint the *Belgian Revolution*, had, for speed's sake, two of his pupils, whose duty it was to smear in with their hands, early in the morning, as much asphaltum as he could afterwards cover in with revolutionary heroes during the remainder of the long summer day. . . . These were the days when Wilkie's best works were coated with asphaltum, which has since made fissures all over them; when Hilton's *Sabrina* was so flooded with it that it now has to be hung alternately right side and wrong side upwards to prevent the figures from entirely running to the top or bottom of the picture."

In 1840 Brown went to Paris and spent four or five years there. He went into no school, but worked for and by himself. At this time Delaroche was the recognized head of the French school, and his style seems to have influenced the young Englishman in the choice of subject and general manner of treatment of such pictures as the "Mary Queen of Scots going to Execution," which was painted at this time. There seems to be no evidence that he was influenced by Delacroix and the colorists, or that he ever heard of the great land-

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scape school that was then growing up in France from the influence of his countryman, Constable. It seems to have been entirely of his own motion, and without knowing anything of parallel attempts, that he then made his first efforts at realistic lighting, and tried, in his "Manfred," to paint figures in the open air as they would really look. He was not successful, and soon began to "study Rembrandt" and went back to his bitumen. In 1840 he paid his first short visit to England, and met the young lady who became his first wife and who died in 1845. In 1844 there was another short visit to England, and the exhibition at Westminster Hall of his cartoons of "Harold," "Adam and Eve," and the "Spirit of Justice," which seem to have impressed no one but Haydon, who, if a bad artist, was sometimes a good critic. It was the failing health of his wife which led to the voyage to Italy that was the turning-point in Madox Brown's career. Three important things happened during this voyage. First, he saw the Holbeins at Basle, and was deeply impressed by their unshrinking and absolute realism; second, he met in Rome the "Nazarenes," Cornelius and Overbeck, and his attention was drawn to their mediævalizing theories and their use of the term Pre-Raphaelite; third, he saw the work of the early Italian painters. The results of these influences were shown almost immediately on his return to England, where, his wife having died in Paris on the way home, he settled in 1845.

The "Chaucer at the Court of Edward III.," begun in Rome, was not finished until 1851, but in 1846 he painted his "Portrait of Mr. Bamford" and in 1876 his "Wickliffe Reading his Translation of the Bible to John of Gaunt." His own account of the portrait may be quoted in full (as given in these pages), as showing better than could anything else the temper in which it was undertaken. The italics would seem to be the artist's own:

"It is," he says, "the first evidence of an entirely new direction of thought and feeling on my part. . . . To those who value facile completeness and handling above painstaking research into nature, the change must appear inexplicable and provoking. Even to myself, at this distance of time, this *instinctive turning back to get around by another road* seems remarkable. But in reality it was only the inevitable result of the want of principle, or rather confliction of many jarring principles, under which the student had to begin in those days. Wishing to substitute simple imitation for *scenic* effectiveness, and purity of natural color for scholastic depth of tone, I found no better way of doing so than to paint what I called a *Holbein of the nineteenth century*. I might perhaps have done so more effectively, but *stepping backwards* is stumbling work at best."

It would be hard to express more explicitly the essential doctrines of Pre-Raphaelitism than is here done. "Simple imitation" and "purity of natural color" (*i. e.*, crudeness and brightness) were its great aims, and were first formulated by a man who was, to all intents and purposes, a foreigner, newly landed in London, and who knew not Ruskin. The other great mark of the movement, its mediævalizing tendency and the worship of the early Italian painters, is shown with equal clearness in the "Wycliffe." Here we have a composition arranged under a pointed arch, the principal figure bolt upright and squarely facing the spectator in the exact middle of the canvas, and supported by subordinate groups to right and left; a diffused light with no dark shadow anywhere, the figures being relieved against a distant landscape and pale clear sky; closely studied mediæval costume; and heads evidently copied directly from nature. If this is not a Pre-Raphaelite picture, it is certainly very near it, and it was the exhibition of this picture which called out the celebrated letter from Rossetti asking to become Madox's Brown's pupil. It is worth noting in passing that the letter was signed "Gabriel C. Rossetti," Rossetti not having as yet adopted the Dante which afterwards figured in his signature. It was in Madox Brown's studio that Rossetti was set at the accurate copying of still life, which he did not at all like, and it was to Madox Brown that he came, in 1848,

"laughing, or at least more or less joking, about some discovery of Hunt's. It turned out that they were the reproductions of Orcagna's frescoes at Pisa. . . . I told him it was all nonsense to laugh at them—they were the finest things in the world, and he'd far better go and look at them again; and, of course, he said just what I did after he'd thought about it.

"As to the name Pre-Raphaelite, when they began talking about the early Italian masters, I naturally told them of the German P. R.'s, and either it pleased them or not, I don't know, but they took it."

So was the Brotherhood founded, and the only reason given by Hunt for Brown's never having been formally invited to become a member, besides his age and the unpopularity of his works (!), is "that his works had none of the minute rendering of natural objects that the P. R.'s, as young men, had determined should distinguish their works."

If in the one particular of minuteness of detail Madox Brown was not yet a Pre-Raphaelite when the Brotherhood was founded, he soon became one to the fullest extent; and no more thoroughly Pre-Raphaelite paintings exist than "The Last of England" and "Work." Neither can any clearer insight into Pre-Raphaelite methods be gained than from the perusal of some passages of Madox Brown's diary. His phrase of "stepping backwards" describes Pre-Raphaelite practice perfectly. Pre-Raphaelitism, as practised by its founders and as advocated by Ruskin, was essentially an appeal to the boy or the savage; it was the denial of synthesis, of composition, and of art, and the attempt to produce a literal imitation of nature by exact analysis and by a return to the most primitive of technical methods. Their practice was more important than their theory, and this was to paint each object separately, direct from nature, on a pure white ground, proceeding thus until the last object was finished and the last bit of canvas covered, when the picture was complete. Justness of effect and beauty of tone are impossible by such a manner of working, but a certain glaring brightness of color and a hard glitter of detail are gained. The savage love of bright color and the savage desire for clearly recognizable facts are both satisfied. At the very time when the men of Barbizon were producing their splendidly synthetic and essentially artistic work, the most serious artists of England were struggling with the impossible task of reforming art by reforming it altogether.

On Thursday, the 19th of June, 1856, Madox Brown "came home and debated what I was to do. By Friday night I settled upon two fresh subjects." One of these was afterwards called "Stages of Cruelty," but is generally referred to, for obvious reasons, as "the Lilac Leaves." He had decided upon the picture on Friday night, and this is the account of the first day's work: "Saturday, 21st—After some bother and delays, began by three and worked till eight at the garden one; painted eight bricks and some leaves." Observe that, in this case, there cannot have been even an outline on the canvas. The "eight bricks" were painted all by themselves. A month later (July 19) he has "A great deal of trouble in arranging the leaves at the side of the head, pinning on fresh ones where they are blighted." It is only on the next day that he begins "designing the two lovers." The picture was finally laid aside and not finished till 1891. "The Last of England" was also painted in the open air, and, "when the flesh was being painted, on cold days," "to ensure the blue appearance that flesh assumes under such circumstances." The result on the painter's health was disastrous; that upon the pictures is best given in his grandson's own words:

"When one stands before the picture ["Work"], it is difficult for the eye to find a point on which to settle. The color, too, is not 'colorist's color,' at least as I understand the words; it is wanting in harmoniousness, disturbing, and what not. One might almost say that both pictures ["Work" and "The Last of England"] had been painted with the then newly discovered aniline dyes."

Such was the true Pre-Raphaelitism of the early fifties, and of its exemplars Holman Hunt is the only survivor, as he was the only one who continued to work in that manner. Millais early deserted to the camp of the Academy. Rossetti, the greatest artist of the band, was never much of a Pre Raphaelite, and his immediate disciples, who constitute what is still called, by an abuse of speech, the Pre-Raphaelite school, are not Pre-Raphaelites at all. With the founding of the "Firm" (Morris, Marshall, Falkner & Co.), the movement changed front entirely, and became an æsthetic movement instead of a realistic one. Madox Brown was here also something of a "precursor," having been in the habit for some years of designing furniture for himself and his friends. He was one of the founders of the "Firm," and furnished it with many cartoons for stained glass. As a result, after 1865, "his pictures became rather essentially decorative than essentially realist." As a member of the English æsthetic school he is best known, and in that capacity he has been a good deal overshadowed by the greater artistic and poetic feeling of Rossetti and the vastly greater ability of Burne Jones. It may be doubted whether, in the words of his biographer, "this stage of his art was nearly as much his own as was the realistic one." Yet in this later vein he produced such works as "Cordelia's Portion" and "Elijah and the Widow's Son," to name but two, which have great and serious qualities, if also grave defects. First of these qualities are to be ranked fine dramatic feeling and emotional expression. His color is also said to have attained great splendor and depth. His drawing was always tentative and uncertain, and in his effort for dramatic expression he was tolerant of strange awkwardnesses and ungainly attitudes. Another fault was an inexplicable fondness for great bundles of crinkled drapery that destroy all simplicity of mass and dignity of line. His last years were devoted to a series of decorative paintings for the Manchester town hall, which show in their composition all the merits and all the faults of his later manner. Of their effectiveness as decoration one who has not seen them in place has no right to judge.

We may conclude with another citation from Mr. Hueffer's admirably impartial summing up:

"His work was never suave, never *quite*

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complete; but it was vigorous and honest to the end, always instinct with a noble feeling for style, and, within its wide but well-defined limit, as thorough as possible."

JEWISH LIFE IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

Jewish Life in the Middle Ages. By Israel Abrahams, M.A. Macmillan Co. 1896.

THE research involved in this piece of work must have been patient and profound; nevertheless the author presents his results in an attractive manner. Acknowledging his indebtedness to distinguished scholars, he is confident that there are not five in a hundred of his citations (of which there are many hundreds) which he has not verified by reference to the original sources. To the brilliant work of M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, 'Israel among the Nations,' Mr. Abrahams's study brings on special lines much valuable confirmation, but it is very differently conceived from that highly rhetorical yet powerful argument. Mr. Abrahams is in no sense an apologist. He extenuates as little as he sets down in malice. But it is much more difficult to recover from the past a true conception of men's actual life than to recover a true conception of their ideals. Both are reflected in contemporaneous literature, but the latter with much more exactness, for it is proverbial wisdom that we cannot accept the indictments of a Jeremiah or a Juvenal as literal transcripts of the social truth; and with as little confidence can we accept the defensive pleas of sectaries when contrasting the virtues of their own sects with the vices and the crimes of other bodies of believers. It so happens, therefore, that Mr. Abrahams has given us a much less satisfactory account of Jewish life in the Middle Ages than of Jewish aspiration; but he has not made the mistake of confounding the one thing with the other, and by careful check and counter-check has done much to bring us face to face with the realities of an experience that abounds in interesting and significant details.

In one respect he confesses to a personal disappointment: he undertook his task with the impression that Jewish life in the Middle Ages was everywhere more or less similar, and that it would be possible to present a generic image of it. "Deeper research has completely dispelled this belief." We have, consequently, less a survey of Jewish life than of Jewish lives. That Jewish life has worn the same family face since the fifteenth century was the misleading circumstance. But in the correction of Mr. Abrahams's misconception resides the principal value of his book, both for himself and for those who read it. Herein we have abundant confirmation of the idea of M. Leroy-Beaulieu, that the modern Jew is the creation of the Ghetto in the main. But his rhetorical effusion blinded us to the narrow limits within which the Ghetto has done its characteristic work—from the fifteenth to the eighteenth century inclusive. Up to the beginning of this period Judaism had much more freedom and variety than it has had since, much as the last century has done for its expansion, and its history was mainly one of progressive assimilation with its environment, freely exchanging benefits and things socially injurious. Much that has been thought peculiar to the mediæval Jew is shown to have been the common property of the Jews and Christians. It must be confessed that the *ensemble* of mediæval Jewish life is a very pleasing one; joyous and playful to a degree that shames the manners of the present time.

The synagogue was the centre of social life. Any Jew who conceived that he had a grievance against another had a right to interrupt the synagogue service until he had obtained a public promise of redress. Lists of debts discharged were read in the synagogue, and lists of stolen goods. Jews about leaving town gave notice there of their intention, and invited the presentation of pecuniary claims. The gayeties of the synagogue over a wedding were of immense variety, and then, too, the sorrows of individuals were made those of the community. The habits of the synagogue had some curious and many interesting features. It took three centuries of the Ghetto to make the Jews indifferent to dress and cleanliness. It may seem a little matter that a certain rabbi had a bag on the wall near his seat in which he kept a pocket-handkerchief; but this convenient article of dress was generally unknown. Laymen were admitted to participation in the synagogue services, but the right went to the highest bidder. The anti-Semite will find his expectations justified by the public announcement of gifts for charitable or religious purposes, but this custom had the amplest Christian precedent. Boys were considered adults at the end of their 13th year, but long before were admitted to a share in the services; and of boy-orators there were many then as now.

We have a valuable chapter on the communal organization. The burden of taxation fell heavily upon the Jews, and the privileges of the wealthier increased with their responsibilities. It was Christian greed that converted the aristocracy of learning into an aristocracy of wealth, and this not until the close of the seventeenth century. The communal regulations were minute, and every infringement of them had its specific penalty, which the civil arm was sometimes invited to enforce, and sometimes demanded as its right. The Ghetto had its beginnings in the communal organization. As early as the thirteenth century—there were voluntary aggregations in certain parts of the great towns and cities; but these were not rigid in their inclusions, and what was dangerous as a voluntary distinction became monstrous as a compulsory imprisonment. Sometimes a protection from the mob, the Ghetto was oftener a defenceless pen. The houses in the ghettos were often owned by Christians who charged exorbitant rents. "There is a curious subcurrent of evidence that the Jews were less exacting in their usurious demands than were others who carried on similar trades." We find them constantly employed in offices of financial trust because of their reputed honesty. Their gravitation to money-lending as their most characteristic occupation was not a voluntary one. They took kindly to handicrafts and agriculture, much preferring skilled labor, not as lighter but as more intellectual; but the restrictive policy of the Church cut them off from one occupation and trade after another, and made money-lending a necessity of their situation, if they had any to lend. Thomas Wilson's famous 'Discourse upon Usury' (1572) is quoted as charging Englishmen with being worse than Jews in their exactions. The former were content with five and ten per cent., "whereas englishe usurers exceed all goddes mercye, & will take they care not howe muche."

The chapters upon courtship, marriage, and divorce are among the most valuable and entertaining. Child-marriage was the rule by the thirteenth century, most girls being married before the conclusion of their legal minority, which ended with their twelfth year. The motives were in part pruriently ethical and in part mystical: any Jewish girl might be the mother of the expected Messiah. After making the engagement of marriage, the parties saw little or nothing of each other until the time for its consummation, the lover sometimes binding himself by written agreement to abstain wholly from the girl's society. The *Shadchan* was a professional match-maker with a legal status, and did a thriving business. Child-marriage did much to increase the frequency of divorce, while the prior engagement frequently broke down. The travelling habit was a potent cause of marital instability. The absentee husband dared not count upon his wife's fidelity or his own, and often on his departure gave the wife a conditional divorce, to take effect if he did not reappear at a stipulated time. There were also "imperfect divorces," designed to protect the wife from rapacious imposition during her husband's absence. The compulsory marriage of rabbis made marriage an ideal state, and furnished it with many beautiful examples. It was the *Chazan*, the synagogue precentor, who was expected to be frail, and too often justified the expectation.

"Monogamy was the result, and not the cause, of an idealized conception of family relations." Jewish life had already at the beginning of the Christian era outgrown polygamy, while there was no formal prohibition of it in the Old Testament, as there is not in the New. The idea that Jewish life followed the Christian example in this particular is without any real warrant. What is true is, that the Jews in Spain followed a polygamous Mohammedan example to some extent, and, always sensitive to their environment, reverted quickly to monogamy in monogamous societies, Jewish or Christian. Jews and Christians were much on the same level during the first eight or nine centuries of the Christian era. "The language of several popes was by no means sternly monogamous." Polygamy, or at least bigamy, was permitted on what seemed to be sufficient grounds. The religious duty of begetting children made such concessions easier for the Jew, but after the tenth century they had no legal force. The same ends were reached by making the business of divorce more expeditious and widening the range of its permission. In the account of marriage customs the student of survivals will find many things he will appreciate, and the student of manners many charming amenities in the relations of young and old, parents and children, man and wife. There is much here to rebuke the conceit of universal progress, and to shame the indignities and disabilities which have reduced the Jew so far below his best estate.

There is a painful chapter on "the Jewish badge." This badge was but the worst of many distinctive forms of dress enforced upon the Jew. It made of him a pariah, the mark of every insult that malignant hatred could devise. It was the invention of Innocent III. (1215), and gives to the irony of his official name its keenest edge. In pleasing contrast with the treatment to which the Jews were themselves subjected was their treatment of dumb animals. This had its sentimental side, as in the Old Testament, where a kid may not be seethed in its mother's milk. To wish that a man might outlast his shoes was not permitted, because a new pair involved the destruction of animal life. Out of a count-

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less multitude of details in Mr. Abrahams's book one knows not which to choose. But the general drift is unmistakable: it is to the persuasion that the modern Jew is to a very great extent the creation of Christian narrowness and cruelty, and to the hope and trust that, in proportion as these are outgrown, the Jew will assume his true place in the economy of nations—a place of which he will not be ashamed.

Letters to Young Shooters (Third Series). Comprising a Short Natural History of British Wildfowl, and Complete Directions in [*sic*] Shooting Wildfowl on the Coast and Inland. By Sir Ralph Payne Gallwey, Bart. With 200 illustrations by Mr. C. Whymper, Mr. J. G. Millais, Mr. De Bree, and the author. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 1896. Crown 8vo, pp. xxx, 630.

THE distinction drawn by English sportsmen between "game-birds" and "wildfowl" is one which Americans do not make between those gallinaceous species ordinarily shot for pleasure or profit and those aquatic species pursued for the same reasons. Thus, the well-known and authoritative writer of the present third series of 'Letters' (*i. e.*, chapters in each of three books) dealt in the first place with the choice and use of the gun; in the second, with the preservation and destruction of "game," as pheasants, partridges, and their allies; he now comes to treat of "wildfowl" and of fowling, in which, as in the other branches of sport, he proves himself to be a past master of his craft—the ungentle art of destroying birds with neatness, dispatch, and certainty. We are struck by his extraordinary patience and precision in the minutiæ of the subject he handles at such great length and in such extreme detail, after personal experiences probably unsurpassed in every respect. He also writes with a full heart, and out of its abundance comes everything he can possibly give us to put us in the way of sharing his own pleasurable success in fowling. For example, in the latter part of the book, where he tells us how to make the ideally best punt, the directions are so minute, so precise, and so clear, text and figures alike, that we have no doubt of what he puts in small capitals at the end of this lesson in boat-building: "Any amateur or professional boat-builder who is unable to construct a first-class gunning-punt by following these simple directions, is deficient in brains or in ordinary manual dexterity" (p. 527). It is the same with the management of the big death-dealer—the stanchion-gun, weighing from 80 to 170 pounds, throwing from ¾ to 1¾ pounds of shot, with a charge of powder up to 5½ ounces. We have this formidable armament at full length—not only with "lock, stock, and barrel," as usual, but with all the other fixtures requisite either for its deadly work on wildfowl or against something of the same sort for the fowler. That there is danger from the butt as well as the muzzle of such a weapon appears from the impressiveness with which the author insists that the breeching-rope shall be secure, and recommends an additional safeguard in terms of a grim humor. Thus, supposing the breeching to part, and no safety-rope to have been provided: "When . . . you have rearranged, as best you can, your battered features, mopped the blood from your face, and, if your eyes are not closed up, picked off the floor of the punt those of your teeth that were not knocked down your throat or overboard, you will perhaps be ready to admit, when too late, that a safety-fastening to your stanchion-gun would have been an advantage" (p. 549). We note further in this connection that the author expresses his decided preference for the good old-fashioned muzzle-loader, though of course the shoulder-gun he carries is a modern breech-loader.

Everything about the management of the punt and the big gun, single-handed or with a puntsman, all the methods of stalking wildfowl, by day or night, in all weathers, seasons, and sorts of places, are set forth in this book with the utmost particularity—not without some repetition, some insistence upon details that seem too obvious or too trivial to be dwelt upon at such length, but all tending to the fowler's success in his varied, his arduous, his often perilous pursuit. The spirit of the whole is contagious; we catch it, and in imagination follow Sir Ralph with something of his own enthusiasm, albeit tastes differ, and we confess that we would rather go with him in this book than be in the same boat with him! Here we are in no danger of being swept out to sea, and take none of the risks which would have cost him his life "a dozen times over" but for the very precautions he urges upon all in this volume, where the worst we have to face is our genial sportsman's sad abuse of small capitals and italics. The text is simply riddled—"killed twice over," as he says of some of his ducks that get more than their share of shot—with pellets like this:

"One of the *first* matters to consider under the title of this letter is *safety*. It robs stanchion-gunning of *all* its charm if you are continually wondering *how* you will contrive to reach home *if* the water becomes rough *or* an adverse wind should blow" (p. 580).

Or this again, for a random shot at passages the like of which for single and double underscoring occur on almost every page:

"INSTANT DECISION is essential *when* the *fowler is* in killing range, for, without a *moment's hesitation*, he will have to *make up his mind how and where* to place the shot-charge among the birds so as to bag the *largest possible* number" (p. 599).

It is clear from these cases that the pen in some hands may have terrors as well as the gun; but we are prepared to brave them all, after our dismay, and have no further criticism to pass upon the otherwise altogether admirable book. Its main body, upon which we have not yet touched, is devoted to the systematic natural history of British wildfowl, from the fowler's standpoint. The brent and certain other geese, the widgeon and a certain few other ducks, are the main objects of his pursuit; but all the *Anatidæ*, all the *Limicolæ*, and other water birds are passed in orderly review, with sufficient technical description for their identification, and excellent accounts of their respective habits. The most practised closet-ornithologist may profitably turn to these pages for information in some cases. The author knows what he writes about, and handles the subject with great precision. He has made one of the best "practical" treatises on ornithology we have read for a long time, and we know where else to to look for Latin names or taxonomic niceties which would be out of place here.

The illustrations are all we should expect from the names of the artists who have contributed to the beauty and interest of the author's work. The fine portraits of the birds themselves are to the life, and the full-page plates of sporting scenes illuminate the text. The finest one of them, to our eye, represents the fowler on the ooze, alongside his punt, amidst his battue of dead ducks, with his hat in his hand to "another sportsman on the scene"—a peregrine falcon soaring overhead—and saying, "Take one and welcome, you splendid fellow!" Another telling composition is the "Blown out to Sea," when the fowler and his punter are just about to throw the big gun overboard to keep from being swamped or capsized in the surf. But were we to particularize concerning the animated scenes and portraits, we should hardly stop short of the whole series, and should have to include even the humbler woodcuts which show everything about the punt and the gun, drawn to scale with an accuracy that accounts for every fraction of the inch. Such excellence of text and illustrations as we attest throws the literary infelicities we have criticised back to the vanishing-point, like a gaggle of geese in the gray of the morning after a miss-fire. The author misses no shots in the book, but brings his game to bag in his own gallant way; and success in writing of fowling, as in fowling itself, is the best criterion of means to that end.

Elements of Psychology. By G. Croom Robertson. Edited by C. A. Foley Rhys-Davids. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

An Outline of Psychology. By Edward Bradford Titchener. Macmillan. 1896.

IT is not altogether easy to determine whether the abundance of psychologies issued in recent years is due more to the rapid progress of that science, to the expectations which the public has been induced to entertain about it, or to the differences of opinion prevailing among its professors and stimulating each to have his say upon the subject. At any rate, we have here two more text-books of psychology which are neither of them devoid of pedagogic value. The volume bearing the name of the late Prof. Robertson is indeed nothing but a compilation from notes of his lectures preserved by his pupils at the University College, London, edited with discipular piety by one of them, Mrs. Rhys-Davids, and betrays its origin in its form and every phrase. It is abrupt in literary statement, cautiously empirical in standpoint, and, as its plentiful references to Spencer, Bain, Sully, and Höffding show, hardly intended for independent use as a text-book. A fastidious critic might on principle object to it that lecture notes do not become a book by the fact of publication, and that it is a doubtful service to the departed to fling upon the world posthumously what they did not choose to publish in their lifetime.

Prof. Titchener's book stands on an entirely different footing. It is the work of a young man still actively engaged in teaching, and forms a methodical and carefully arranged statement of his present views. These are well brought out by a manner of writing which, in spite of a certain fondness for technical terms, is preëminently clear and direct. We note several points of interest about his treatment of mental phenomena. (1.) His psychology is essentially experimental, and he tells us that he has not described any experiment which he has not himself performed. (2.) It confines itself to the consideration of the adult normal human mind, and excludes on principle all reference to genetic methods, to infant, animal, abnormal, and social psychology. The very sufficient reason Prof. Titchener gives for this procedure is that these studies have not yet reached the level of science, and his adhesion to the course laid down is not substantially impaired by his selecting an occasional

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illustration from the tabooed branches of psychological inquiry. (3.) He brings psychology into the closest possible relation to physiology. To be experimental, he says, psychology must employ the method of introspection under experimental conditions—that is, adapt the methods and machinery of the natural sciences. As a matter of fact, the science whose language he adopts, and to whose authority he appeals, is almost exclusively physiology. Sometimes, indeed, he seems to jump at the physiological where explanation in purely psychological terms seems quite attainable, and to carry his deference to physiology further than is necessary or warranted, as, *e. g.*, when (p, 342) he states it to be simply a *fact* that there is "no psychosis without neurosis." That is doubtless a highly probable and convenient theory to work with, but, as a sheer statement of established fact, we prefer Prof. Robertson's diagram (p. 43), and his view of the *inferential* character of the particular physical processes that are asserted to correspond to many familiar mental processes.

(4.) As might have been expected from a translator and pupil of Wundt's, Prof. Titchener is strong on the "elementary" processes of consciousness. But, like Münsterberg and Külpe, he has reduced the master's *three* to two by the rejection of any special volitional process shown in effort, attention, voluntary movement, choice, self-consciousness, etc. This is interesting as showing how inevitably Wundt's naturalistic method tends to destroy the conceptions linking psychology to the higher philosophic sciences, in spite of his own struggle to retain them. Prof. Titchener allows us to be under no illusion on this point. He has no use for will in psychology, and interprets all such processes in terms of physiology. Thus, the explanation, *e. g.*, of the differences of mental constitution, of the retention of past experiences in memory, of the owning of mental processes by the individual "self," etc., is in each case frankly found in the existence of the bodily organism.

It is true (5) that the book concludes with a short chapter on the philosophy of mind, touching upon the further questions which, according to Prof. Titchener, lie beyond the science of psychology, relegates them to metaphysics, and quotes with apparent approval some of Lotze's remarks on the unity of mind. But after so thoroughgoing an admission of physiological explanations, after so unhesitating an acceptance of the metaphorical descriptions of bodily motions found in physiology as "nerve-currents," "cell explosions," "transfers of energy," and what not, it is not easy to see what there is left in psychology to demand further treatment in metaphysics. Nor is a metaphysical reinterpretation facilitated by the very definite way in which Prof. Titchener has set psychology on the side of the lower sciences over against the higher, such as logic and ethics. It is to be hoped that he will see his way to be more explicit in a subsequent edition, and show us, *e. g.*, how he would conceive of metaphysics as reëstablishing the unity of the mind which has been so ignominiously expelled from psychology.

After thus drawing attention to the main characteristics of Prof. Titchener's standpoint, we may conclude by congratulating him on producing, within the limits indicated, an interesting presentment of his subject, the use of which as a text-book is rendered easy by an excellent index.

The Bay Colony: A Civil, Religious and Social History of the Massachusetts Colony 1624–1650. By William Dummer Northend, LL.D. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1896.

Samuell Gorton: A Forgotten Founder of Our Liberties, First Settler of Warwick, R. I. By Lewis G. Janes. Providence: Preston & Rounds. 1896.

THE frontispiece portrait of John Winthrop in Mr. Northend's volume, and the termination of the narrative with Winthrop's death, harmonize with the liberal reliance upon this worthy's Journal by the present historian. Nearly forty per cent. of Mr. Northend's references are to this source, and his point of view may be said to be substantially that of Winthrop. Textual citations from this authority are correspondingly numerous. While welcome in themselves, they often stand in need of such a gloss as the Rhode Islanders, for example, have been supplying for the past two centuries, and Mr. Janes the latest, in the work bracketed with Mr. Northend's above. Orderly and interesting as is this succinct chronicle of the Bay Colony, it falls short of suggesting to the unlearned reader the vast contention which has raged over the subjects of some of the chapters, as, Roger Williams, Anne Hutchinson, and Samuel Gorton. One coming fresh from Bodge's 'History of King Philip's War,' also, might feel a certain softening in the picture of the treatment of the Indians. Nevertheless, while Mr. Northend manifestly reverences the Puritan founders and their foundation, he is not a professional apologist. In this respect he compares favorably with Palfrey, the first volume of whose Abridgment parallels his own undertaking, and cannot be said to be more readable, more perspicuous, or more just.

We must refrain from episodical comment on this presentation of the ever-memorable struggle of theocratic government, on the one hand against interference by the Crown, on the other against the disrupting tendencies of immigration and the natural enlargement of the human spirit. The seeds of revolution and separation are clearly discernible in the one phase of the colony's experience during the quarter-century under review; the futility of the cut-and-dried in civil, religious, and social arrangements equally shines forth in the other. We prefer to direct attention to Mr. Northend's chapter xiv. on the dispute between the Assistants and the Deputies for its bearing on the present *reductio ad absurdum* of representative government in this country since the power of nomination has been taken away from the people. As early as 1640 in the Bay Colony an endeavor was made to secure such nomination of the magistrates (*i. e.*, Governor, Deputy-Governor, and Assistants) in town meeting. The deputies to the General Court elected at these meetings were thereupon to "call for nominations for magistrates, record the names of those nominated and the number of votes for each, and make return of the same to the next General Court." This body was to count the votes and report the highest back to the electors, who might on election day vote pro or con, but for no other nominees. In 1642 a nominating convention, meeting at Salem and composed of delegates from the several towns, was proposed, the names thus certified to the Secretary of the Colony being alone eligible. In 1643 reversion was made to the plan of 1640, "with some explanation." In 1644 the machinery was: nomination in town meeting, sealing of the votes and confiding them to a committee to meet similar committees at the shire-town of the county, counting of them, and report of the highest, who alone could be voted for or against. This system was doomed to disappear with the growth of population, and no proposal to restore to the people its ancient and salutary right has ever obtained a foothold among us, who are now but the veriest slaves of the Machine.

Mr. Janes does not add much to our knowledge of Gorton (who is anything but "forgotten"), but he makes plain the peculiar views of this uncomfortable neighbor to the Bay, touching the power of colonists to organize themselves without a charter and to abrogate the body of English liberties. Gorton

"held that, as subjects of Great Britain, the colonial governments should conform in their legislation and judicial action to the principle of English common and statute law. If chartered, they were bound to do this by the terms of their charters. If not chartered, each individual had the right to claim the protection of English law, and any denial thereof was a usurpation of authority. This was the head and front of his alleged anarchism."

His disorganizing religious views also are exhibited by the aid of an unpublished voluminous commentary on the Lord's Prayer. They resembled those of the Quakers in respect to prophecy, inspiration, and outward ordinances, without, however, accepting the "inner light" or the non-resistant attitude towards government. His idea of Jesus would be called Unitarian. "With Theodore Parker, he taught that the divine nature is both masculine and feminine; and, in one of the most striking and eloquent passages in his Commentary on the Lord's Prayer, he argues for the equal recognition of woman in the Church and as a teacher of religion."

Gorton, like Roger Williams, Anne Hutchinson, Mary Dyer, Randall Holden, and Obadiah Holmes, has left a large and vigorous posterity, and will, we may be sure, never lack a vindicator.

Modern French Literature. By Benjamin W. Wells, Ph.D. (Harv.). Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1896.

THE first three chapters of this work, introductory to the historical scheme of the sequel, contribute so little to the purpose of the volume that they might well have been condensed into an opening sketch, instead of taking up one hundred and eighteen pages. The remaining chapters are devoted to the literature of this century from Mme. de Staël to our own day, passing in review the productions of France in poetry, the drama, criticism, and prose fiction, with detailed treatment of the Romantic and Naturalistic movements. Neither the author's ample prefatory acknowledgment of indebtedness, nor his declaration that he has himself verified the validity of opinions freely adopted, can quite make up for want of originality in leading conclusions, so that the work may be described, not unfairly, as a clear summary of French judgments on French literature set forth to English readers. Chapter ix., for example ("The Evolution of Lyric Poetry"), already published as a separate essay, discloses the authority of Brunetière; while others pay recognizable tribute to such well-known leaders as Faguet or Lanson, even without the voucher of footnotes. Perhaps because of this deference to French authority, Dr. Wells seems to lack warmth in commending, and shows to better advantage in estimating critical, rather than creative, work. To judge of this, the reader has but to contrast the excel-

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lent chapter (viii.) on the "Evolution of History and Criticism" with the mere list of epithets and rhetorical interrogations on the subject of Hugo's 'Les Châtiments.' And probably also out of deference to French opinion the works of Verlaine, the Décadents, and the Symbolistes are discussed as serious contributions to the poetry of the nineteenth century. We may note that this modesty has had the minor effect of fairly spangling many pages with uninviting quotation marks.

In spite of wide and generally careful reading, Dr. Wells's principles of discrimination are not invariably clear. If Gustave Planche, Jules Janin, and Paul de Saint-Victor are to be omitted from the list of critics as "not standing for something," why need notice be taken of the "ephemerally popular" contemporary, Jules Lemaître? Any account of French Romanticism may well be expected to mention the name of Mürger, but it is wanting, as, among contemporary poets and novelists, we miss Catulle Mendès, who is at least as earnest in his artistic aims as Joris Karl Huysmans, and who writes undeniably better French. Some of these omissions may no doubt be explicable on the ground of a too great attachment to the literature of the moment. Dr. Wells has rendered service to reader or student in his examinations of Hugo, Flaubert, and Zola; his treatment of Hugo is especially exhaustive and accurate in its conclusions as to the total worth of this author's work.

More careful revision would remove several errors of detail, of which we note the following: Frédéric et *Bernadette*, Ragabas, Forte comme la Mort, La Duchesse de Langleais, Méta Holdennis. The opportunity of a new edition might also be seized by Dr. Wells for checking his taste for irrelevant and confused comparisons, the appended specimens of which have not been unfairly picked: "Madame de Staël used to sit at her mother's feet, and drink in the strong drink of the debates and discussions around her, storing up silently, like a busy bee, material," etc. (p. 120). "While his [Lamartine's] verses flow as naturally as the gentle rain from heaven, their ethereal mushiness drowns the germs of healthy realistic action" (p. 161). "The Mephistophelian spirit that enamels our overstrained consciences with its sceptical Pyrrhonism, mocks at duty and virtue, and answers every noble aspiration with a sneer" (p. 366). "Little more than the echo, sometimes the distorted echo, of such nebulous thinkers," etc. (p. 402). Such lapses as those just noticed provoke and justify Paul Louis Courier's petulant exclamation, "Dieu, délivre-nous du malin et du langage figuré!"

The Story of Canada. [The Story of the Nations.] By J. G. Bourinot, C.M.G., LL.D., D.C.L. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

The editor of the "Story of the Nations" series had a stroke of good fortune when he enlisted Dr. Bourinot, whose volume on Canada takes rank above most of its fellows in the set. Written by one who has enjoyed every facility for informing himself, it represents the reading of many years compressed into popular form. The author claims "always to have consulted original authorities," and his statement is borne out upon every page. He begins with Leif Ericson, and alludes to the general elections of last June, so that he pretty well covers the ground. His first interests are constitutional, and he has made the department of parliamentary procedure his own. Nevertheless, he resists the temptation of filling his chapters with politics, and writes in the easy, agreeable strain expected of him on the present occasion. We advise summer tourists when starting for Quebec or the Maritime Provinces to add this historical sketch to 'Their Wedding Journey,' 'Baddeck and That Sort of Thing,' and 'The Seats of the Mighty.' The illustrations are particularly good. We have rarely seen a more suitable selection in a book of the kind. Many of the cuts are taken from inaccessible works, and the choice has been judiciously made with a view to explaining the text.

The unwary reader might suppose from Dr. Bourinot's surname that he was of French Canadian extraction and that he would be tempted to portray events from the French standpoint. This is not the case. He is a Jerseyman by origin, and has always been a Britisher of strong imperial leanings. The most picturesque part of Canadian annals lies before the cession, and Dr. Bourinot only follows universal precedent when he gives the bulk of his space to the period between Cartier and Montcalm. As might be expected from the fact that the author was born in Cape Breton, the Acadian and Louisburg chapters are done with special care. The volume concludes with an entertaining excursus on the French Canada of to-day and the manners of its inhabitants.

We fear that Dr. Bourinot has somewhat idealized Jacques Bonhomme, both in his private and public relations. "The temperate habits of the French Canadian make them [*sic*] necessarily valuable employees in mills and manufactories of all kinds. Indeed, they prefer this life to that of the farm, and until very recently there was a steady exodus of this class to the manufacturing towns of Lowell, Holyoke, and other places in New England." We imagine, on the contrary, that the French Canadian's willingness to work for a small wage has appealed to the mill-owners of this country quite as much as his indifference to *whiskey blanc*. Again, apropos of the typical village which one finds in the basin of the Lower St. Lawrence: "Whitewash is freely used inside and outside, and there is on the whole an air of cleanliness and comfort in the humblest cottage." We can vouch for the whitewash, but the cleanliness is a beautiful illusion of the sympathetic historian. How can twelve people snowed up for five months in a house of four rooms keep clean? As for the summer, if Dr. Bourinot is fond of fishing, let him explore the country through which the Labelle branch of the Canadian Pacific Railway runs. A few nights in the best hotels of that region will tend to modify the view he now holds of French Canadian cleanliness and comfort.

We leave outside this notice such weighty constitutional questions as the Quebec Act and the founding of the Dominion, for the sake of according brief praise to Dr. Bourinot's account of the three domestic disturbances which have arisen in Canada since 1815—the "Papineau War" and the two risings instigated by Louis Riel. A statement of Lord Durham in 1839 shows the significance of the first of these: "I found two nations warring in the bosom of a single state; I found, not a struggle of principles, but of races." Dr. Bourinot describes the conflict with spirit, castigating Sir Francis Head as he deserves. The Riel rebellions are treated with eminent fairness. Since the last one was repressed, the life and property of settlers in the northwest territories have been as secure as they would be in Ontario or Quebec. The Mounted Police deserve to stand beside the Spanish Civil Guard.

We can heartily commend this book to all who are on the watch for a concise and readable outline of Canadian history.

A Record of the Buddhist Religion as Practised in India and the Malay Archipelago (A. D. 671-695). By I-Tsing. Translated by J. Takakusu. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1896.

Contemporary accounts by foreigners are of interest and value in contributing to our knowledge of a country or of a people, whether the time be ancient or be modern. Special importance may be attached to such accounts when the writer is a trustworthy observer and his subject one upon which we need information. This is true of the record which a Chinese traveller of the seventh century, one I-Tsing, himself a Buddhist, has preserved of his visit and long stay in India more than twelve hundred years ago. I-Tsing is the third of the famous Chinese pilgrims that journeyed to the holy land of the Buddhists. Fā-hien had been the pioneer in these sacred pilgrimages two centuries before him; and I-Tsing's contemporary, the Celestial Hiuen Thsang, had returned from the shrine of the Enlightened and died but a few years before I-Tsing started for India's shores. Born A. D. 635, an ardent student of the Sacred Canon of the Buddha, a member of the Holy Buddhist Order, I-Tsing was thirty-seven years old when he found himself at last able to carry out his cherished plan of visiting Hindustan. For more than a quarter of a century he remained abroad, most of which time he spent in India. This faithful pilgrim brought back to China a large number of Buddhist texts and spent several years in translating these religious volumes into his native tongue.

The present Record of Buddhist Practices, or 'Nan-hai-chi-kuei-nai-fa-ch'uan' (a record of the inner law sent home from the southern sea), he composed while in Sumatra (A. D. 690-692). In it he dwells chiefly on the monastic life and discipline of his time, as his object was to correct certain erroneous practices, or misrepresentations of Buddhistic rules, that had crept into China. The chapters are necessarily of great interest to students of the Vinaya texts; but, more than that, they contain much that the general reader, or the curious, will peruse with no small pleasure. The Sanskrit scholar will find abundant material for careful study in pages 152-185, where I-Tsing enters upon literary and linguistic matters with reference to Sanskrit. The material thus furnished by the Chinese pilgrim was known, indeed, before; but it was not, until now, so accessible as the present translation makes it. Incidental allusions by I-Tsing render important service in fixing dates in the desert region of Hindu literary chronology. Passing mention, for example (p. 178-180), of Bhartrihari, and the sentence "It is now forty years since his death," enable us to say with comparative certainty that this Sanskrit writer of proverbial philosophy passed away about A. D. 651.

The importance of the work may be judged from the long letter with which Max Müller introduces the book. The translation of I-Tsing had been begun some years ago by Kasawara, one of Max Müller's Japanese Buddhist pupils. After this young man's untimely death, the present translator took up the task anew, and it seems he has completed it in a thorough

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manner, availing himself of the various contributions to the subject by French, English, and Japanese scholars. He has prefaced the volume with an elaborate and useful general introduction. A map is added, tracing I Tsing's travels. The book is timely and is welcome.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Austin, L. F. At Random: Essays and Stories. Ward, Lock & Co. $1 25.
Baldwin, James. A Guide to Systematic Readings in the Encyclopædia Britannica. New and revised ed. Chicago: The Werner Co.
Barnes, Prof. C. R. Analytic Key to the Genera and Species of North American Mosses. Madison, Wis.: University of Wisconsin. $1.
Bosanquet, Mrs. Bernard. Rich and Poor. Macmillan. $1.50.
Di Brazza, Countess. An American Idyll. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.50.
Brett, R. B. The Yoke of Empire: Sketches of the Queen's Prime Ministers. Macmillan. $1.75
Bryan, W. J. The First Battle. Chicago: W. B. Conkey Co.
Codman, John. An American Transport in the Crimean war. New York: Bonnell, Silver & Co. 75c.
Cooper, C. A. An Editor's Retrospect: Fifty Years of Newspaper Work. Macmillan. $4.
Crosby, W. E. Our Little Book for Little Folks. American Book Co. 30c.
Daudet, Alphonse. Le Trésor d' Arlatan. Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern.
Dejob, Charles. Études sur la Tragédie. Paris: Colin & Cie.
D'Ooge, B. L. Easy Latin for Sight Reading. Boston: Ginn & Co. 45c.
Emerson, P. H. Caóba, the Guerilla Chief: A Real Romance of the Cuban Rebellion. London: David Nutt.
Fawcett, Edgar. Life's Fitful Fever. P. F. Collier. 25c.
Gaines, A. G. Sound Money. Canton, N. Y.: *Plaindealer* Press.
Garden and Forest. 1896. Vol. IX. *Garden and Forest* Publishing Co.
Goss, C. F. The Optimist. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.25.
Graham, P. A. The Red Scaur: A Novel of Manners. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Guerber, H. A. The Story of the Chosen People. American Book Co. 60c.
Hamlin, A. C. The History of Mount Mica of Maine, U. S. A. Bangor, Me.: The Author.
Heaton, J. L. The Book of Lies. New York: The Morse Co.
In Excelsis: Hymns with Tunes for Christian Worship. Century Co. $1.75.
Kellogg Prof. D. O. New American Supplement to the Latest Edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. I. A-Byz. Chicago: The Werner Co.
Lynch, Michael. In the Promised Land, and Other Poems. Boston: Charles O'Farrell.
MacMechan, Prof. Archibald. Carlyle's Sartor Resartus. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1 40.
Nicoll, W. R., and Wise, T. J. Literary Anecdotes of the Nineteenth Century. Vol. II. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Palmer, C. F. Inebriety: Its Source, Prevention and Cure. F. H. Revell Co. 50c
Rutherford, Mildred, Mannie Brown and Edward Kennedy. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co. $1.
Sanford, Rev. A. B. Methodist Year-Book. 1897. Eaton & Mains.
Scott, Prof. F. N., and Denney, Prof. J. V. Composition Rhetoric. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.
Steel, Mrs. Flora A. On the Face of the Waters: A Tale of the Mutiny. Macmillan. $1.50.
Stisted, Georgiana M. The True Life of Capt. Sir Richard F. Burton. London: H. S. Nichol; New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Thwaites, R. The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents Vol. III. Acadia: 1611-1616. Cleveland: The Burrows Bros. Co. $3 50.
Wileman, J. P. Brazilian Exchange: The Study of an Inconvertible Currency. Buenos Ayres: Galli Bros.; London: Effingham Wilson.

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